LEARNING TO TEACH:

COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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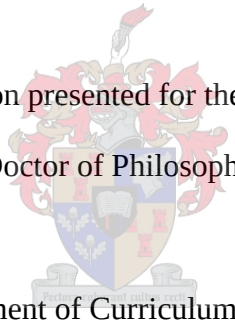

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Declaration:

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the authorship owner thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: .....

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the development of the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers over the course of a B Ed degree programme at a South African university. It challenges the premise of conventional wisdom that classroom communication behaviours will develop through regular exposure to situated learning experiences. Whilst acknowledging that learning to teach is a long and challenging process of which the precise nature is seldom clear-cut and distinct, this study claims to make a humble contribution to teacher education curriculum development.

Classroom communication from the perspective of this study involves communication at two levels: firstly, interpersonal communication behaviours, which are influenced by nonverbal immediacy, communication apprehension, willingness to communicate and self-perceived communication skills; and secondly, instructional communication behaviours, more specifically clarity and immediacy behaviours. There seems to be a general perception that effective classroom communication will develop naturally by exposure to situated learning experiences, such as teaching practice sessions. Although the relative importance of these specific classroom communication behaviours for quality teaching and learning is acknowledged, whether and how these develop is seldom explicitly monitored. This was the intention of this study. It utilised a longitudinal mixed methods approach to follow Foundation Phase students over the four years of the degree programme in order to answer the following research question: To what extent do perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of a B Ed degree programme?

The quantitative phase collected data using various self-report surveys in order to investigate possible changes in the self-perceptions of Foundation Phase student teachers regarding their communication behaviours over the four-year period. The purpose of the qualitative phase was to investigate possible changes in the perceptions of external evaluators regarding the instructional communication behaviours of student teachers over the degree programme. The

qualitative data was obtained from the evaluation reports written by external evaluators on various aspects of the observed lessons.

Although some changes occurred during the course of the B Ed degree programme, they were not as substantial as anticipated. From an interpersonal communication perspective, there was one particularly noticeable change: the self-perceived communication competence of the Foundation Phase student teachers improved between the first and second years of the programme, however, thereafter no further changes occurred. From an instructional communication perspective, more noticeable changes occurred: Foundation Phase student teachers improved in some aspects related to clarity, however other aspects still remained challenging. However, there was positive development related to immediacy: the fourth year Foundation Phase student teachers displayed higher levels of immediacy behaviours at the end of the four-year degree programme.

Bearing in mind that neither interpersonal nor instructional communication theory was explicitly included in this particular B Ed degree programme; these findings are particularly noteworthy. This study advances the argument that if teacher education intends to address the quality of the teacher graduates entering the profession, classroom communication needs to be included in teacher education curricula.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie ondersoek die ontwikkeling van die klaskamer-kommunikasiegedrag van studentonderwysers in die Grondslagfase aan 'n Suid-Afrikaanse universiteit oor die verloop van 'n B Ed-graadprogram. Dit daag die konvensionele opvatting uit dat klaskamer-kommunikasiegedrag sal ontwikkel met gereelde blootstelling aan leerervarings in die praktyk. Alhoewel aanvaar word dat om te leer om te onderrig 'n lang en uitdagende proses is waarvan die presiese aard selde duidelik en onderskeibaar is, word daar met hierdie studie gepoog om 'n beskeie bydrae te lewer tot die ontwikkeling van onderwysersopleidingskurrikulums.

Klaskamerkommunikasie behels vanuit die perspektief van hierdie studie twee vlakke: eerstens, interpersoonlike kommunikasiegedrag, wat beïnvloed word deur nie-verbale onmiddellikheid, kommunikasie-angstigheid, gewilligheid om te kommunikeer en self-persepsie van kommunikasievaardighede; en tweedens, onderrigkommunikasie-gedrag, meer spesifiek duidelikheid en onmiddellikheid. Die algemene persepsie bestaan dat doeltreffende klaskamerkommunikasie spontaan sal ontwikkel deur blootstelling aan praktiese ervaring in die klaskamer. Alhoewel die relatiewe belangrikheid van hierdie spesifieke klaskamer-kommunikasiegedrag algemeen erken word, word die ontwikkeling hiervan selde eksplesiet gemoniteer. Juis dít was die doel van hierdie studie. Longitudinale gemengde-metode navorsingsmetodologie is gebruik om Grondslagfase studente se kommunikasie-ontwikkeling oor die verloop van hul graadprogram te volg, met die doel om die volgende navorsingsvraag te beantwoord: Tot watter mate verander persepsies oor die klaskamer-kommunikasiegedrag van studentonderwysers in die Grondslagfase oor die verloop van die B Ed-graadprogram?

Tydens die kwantitatiewe fase van die studie is data ingesamel deur die gebruik van 'n aantal self-rapporterende opnames ten einde moontlike veranderinge in die Grondslagfase studentonderwysers se selfpersepsie van hulle kommunikasiegedrag oor die tydperk van vier jaar te ondersoek. Die doel van die kwalitatiewe fase was om ondersoek in te stel na moontlike veranderinge in die persepsies van eksterne evalueerders wat betref die onderrig-kommunikasiegedrag van die studetonderwysers oor die verloop van die vier jaar van die

kursus. Die kwalitatiewe data is verkry uit evalueringsverslae wat geskryf is deur eksterne evalueerders oor verskillende aspekte van die lesse wat geëvalueer is.

Alhoewel daar sommige veranderinge plaasgevind het oor die verloop van die vier jaar van die B Ed-kursus, was hierdie veranderinge nie so substansieel as wat verwag is nie. Vanuit die oogpunt van interpersoonlike kommunikasie was daar slegs een merkbare verandering: die Grondslagfase-studente se selfpersepsie van hulle kommunikasievaardigheid het van die eerste na die tweede jaar verbeter, maar daarna het geen verdere veranderinge plaasgevind nie. Vanuit die oogpunt van onderrigkommunikasie het meer merkbare veranderinge egter plaasgevind: die Grondslagfase-studentonderwysers het verbeter ten opsigte van sommige aspekte wat betref duidelikheid, maar ander aspekte het steeds 'n uitdaging gebly. Daar was egter positiewe ontwikkeling wat betref onmiddellikheid: die Grondslagfase-studentonderwysers het in hulle vierde jaar hoër vlakke van onmiddellikheid getoon as aan die begin van hulle studies.

Hierdie veranderings is veral opmerklik as is ag geneem word dat nie interpersoonlike kommunikasie of onderrigkommunkasie eksplesiet onderrig is in die spesifieke kursus nie. Hierdie studie voer aan dat as onderwysersopleiding 'n verskil wil maak aan die kwaliteit van onderwysgraduandi wat die beroep betree, moet onderrigkommunkasie ingesluit word by onderwysersopleiding-kurrikulums.

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I dedicate this study to my parents, Betsy and André Stoltz

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

B Ed: Bachelor of Education

CA: Communication Apprehension

FP: Foundation Phase

GET: General Education and Training

IC: Instructional Communication

ICC: Instructional Communication Competence

IPC: Interpersonal Communication

ISP: Intermediate and Senior phase

MTREQ: Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications

NI: Nonverbal Immediacy

NIS-S: Nonverbal Immediacy Scale – Self-report

PRCA: Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

SCO: Socio-Communicative Orientation

SCS: Socio-Communicative Style

SPCC: Self-Perceived Communication Competence

WTC: Willingness To Communicate

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

For me context is the key - from that comes the understanding of everything.

Kenneth Noland

1.1 ORIENTATION

The quality of education is a very topical issue in the South African context. The quality of the teacher in the classroom is therefore a core concern for teacher educators and researchers. Twentieth century research in teacher education often addressed the disparity between theory and practice. 'Abstract knowledge' according to Kessels and Korthagen (2001:20) is viewed as superior to 'concrete skills' or a solid understanding of good practice. Many debates address issues related to improving the quality of teacher education. Some believe that teachers should rather acquire more content knowledge in order to improve the quality of teaching (McCroskey, Richmond & McCroskey 2006).

Over time researchers involved in teacher education challenged this single-minded orientation (McCroskey, Richmond and McCroskey 2002:383) and a shift evolved in thinking around alternative approaches to knowledge: there was recognition of the importance of content knowledge (what), but this should never replace pedagogical knowledge (how to teach). In fact, Shulman (1987:8) argues that there are various categories of knowledge, which should be included in the mixture of types of knowledge that teachers need to teach effectively. However, he highlights pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in particular, because it is here where teachers merge their content knowledge with knowledge of how to teach the content.

Furthermore, the question of how student teachers really learn to become competent teachers has also become the concern of communication education researchers. McCroskey *et al* (2002:384) describe their view of effective teaching as a "three-legged stool". Content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are two of the legs, but they claim a two-legged stool

should not be trusted as the stool needs a third leg to be stable, namely effective classroom communication. A study by Johnson and Roellke (1999) found classroom communication to be one of the top five skills required for effective teaching. The other critical skills were: preparation for class, classroom control, enthusiasm and the ability to motivate learners. Most of these critical skills are related to effective classroom communication. Hunt, Simonds and Cooper (2002:84) claim that "(t)here should be little debate about the fact that the essence of teaching is communication".

Effective and clear communication is fundamental to the process of meaning-making. If a teacher's rapport with learners is impaired by ineffective classroom communication, this not only has a negative impact on the acquisition of knowledge, but also impedes the learners' ability to develop effective interpersonal communication skills by following the example set by the teacher. The interaction between teaching and learning, as well as between teacher and learner, is always communicative by nature and effective classroom communication is thus an essential teaching tool. The quality of the teaching and learning is therefore inevitably influenced by the quality and quantity of the communicative processes in the classroom (Le Roux 1990).

The mere ability to speak fluently should, however, not be mistaken for effective classroom communication. Classroom communication, according to Olive (2004:46), requires much more than ordinary conversation skills. She (2004:47) explains that the skill of creating a comfortable space in which a learner can trust a teacher "…is primarily mastered through the knowledge and use of the tool of Effective Communication" (*sic*).

This study therefore investigates the role that classroom communication can play in improving the quality of teaching and learning. The focus of this study is two-fold: firstly it focuses on the extent to which the self-perceived communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of the B Ed degree programme. The perceptions of student teachers related to their communication behaviour will influence their interpersonal communication (IPC) development, which in turn will influence their relationships inside the classroom with the mentor teacher as well as the learners. Secondly, the study intends to follow the perceptions of external evaluators related to the instructional

communication (IC) development of student teachers. IC is another aspect that plays an important role in teaching and learning which is enacted by the levels of immediacy and clarity behaviours[1] of the student teacher.

1.2 CONTEXT

Learning to teach is a long and difficult process which entails the development of various skills. The precise nature of this process is not always clear (Rusznyak 2008). What is clear, however, is that quality teachers are needed at all levels of education in South Africa.

As mentioned earlier, there are serious concerns about the quality of teachers in the South African school system and improving the quality of teacher graduates is a concern raised by many authors, including Paterson and Arends (2009). Bernstein (2011:7) argues that "teachers are at the centre of South Africa's struggling school system". This echoes the findings of Chisholm (2004:20) who urges that considerations about teacher quality require serious attention.

The South African government also regards the development of quality teachers as a policy priority. Accordingly, the primary aim of the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa (DHET 2011:1) is to "improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to improve the quality of teachers and teaching". Recently[2], the policy on the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ) was introduced by government in an attempt to address issues related to teacher education and to ensure "that the higher education system produces the kinds of teachers that the country needs" (DHET 2011:4).

The MRTEQ document (DHET 2011:53) lists eleven basic competencies as minimum requirements that can be expected from newly educated teachers. The fourth requirement on

[1] More detail regarding the concepts of clarity and immediacy will be provided in Section 1.7 as well as in Chapter 2.
[2] This policy was published in the government gazette on 15 July 2011.

this list stipulates: "(n)ewly qualified teachers must know how to communicate effectively in general, as well as in relation to their subject(s), in order to mediate learning." This study offers insight into ways in which teacher educator curricula can potentially address this minimum requirement. However, this study also addresses an aspect related to the third requirement on the MRTEQ (2011:53) list, namely that "newly qualified teachers must know who their learners are", because it is only through sensible interpersonal interaction with learners that teachers will be able to truly know their learners and understand what their educational needs are.

As teacher educator, concerned with improving the quality of teacher graduates, I am particularly interested in the process of learning to teach from a communication perspective. I am the resident drama lecturer in the Faculty of Education at a Western Cape university. However, over the years, my interests have broadened and I am also responsible for Professional Practice and Academic literacy at first and fourth year level. During teaching practice sessions I evaluate lessons taught by student teachers across all subject areas in the Foundation and Intermediate and Senior phases. I evaluate practical teaching sessions twice every year. When discussing the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers with mentor teachers, they often remark that "these things" will develop over time. This may be true, but in the pursuit of improving the quality of novice teachers, this study addresses issues which can and should be, in my mind, dealt with during the course of the B Ed degree. The notion that time has an influence on the development of these skills prompted me to adopt a longitudinal research design (see Section 3.3).

The concerns raised in the previous paragraphs are in reality also related to concerns in a bigger, more general picture. A study by Griesel and Parker (2009:2) on the "views and expectations of employers and their evaluation of the quality of graduates produced by our higher education institutions" identified four framing[3] categories to investigate the gaps between employer expectations of graduates and the graduates that the system of Higher Education produces. The fourth category is particularly relevant for this study as it refers to the personal and interactive skills required from graduates. These so-called 'softer' skills, are often neglected in degree programmes, but are essential skills for the development of sensible

[3] The other categories are: 1. Basic skills and understanding; 2. Knowledge and intellectual ability; 3. Workplace skills and applied knowledge (Griesel and Parker 2009:6).

interpersonal communication in the workplace. However, competency in interpersonal skills is often regarded as part of a specific personality profile, which implies that change or improvement is not anticipated. This is another 'myth' that this study intends to investigate.

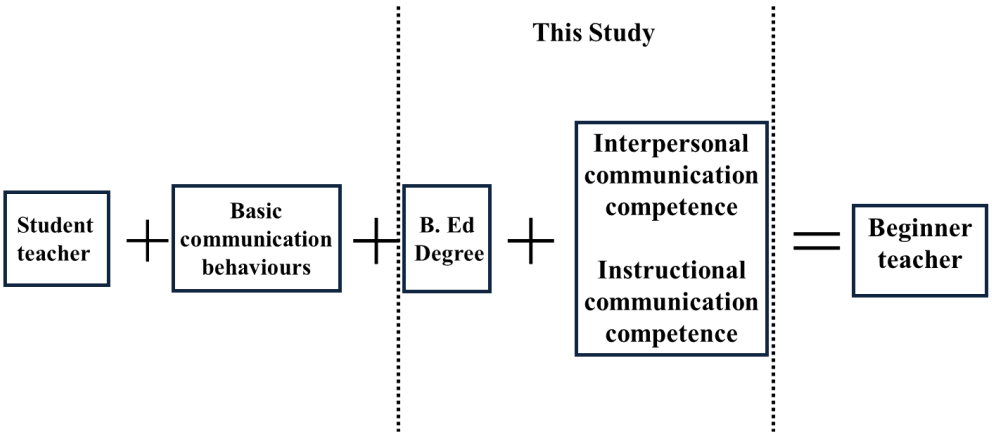
The Bachelor of Education (B Ed) degree programme at the Western Cape university where this study was conducted, is designed to provide student teachers over the study period with more depth and knowledge in various subjects. It aims to cover aspects of professional practice, foundational knowledge, as well as subject methodologies during the course of the four-year programme. The language abilities of student teachers are addressed in general language proficiency courses which, due to practicality and financial issues, generally focus on language related skills that are generally assessed by means of written assignments. Student teachers, at this university, have to study first and second languages in the first two years of the degree programme, the third language is introduced in the second year. These language courses are also presumed to support the development of oral communication skills.

A very important clarification must be made at this stage: communication development in this study does not refer to language development. Although language in teaching is an area of research which is critical in educational research, especially in the South African context (Dippenaar and Peyper 2011; Evans and Cleghorn 2010), the specific focus of this study is on the development of classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase (FP) student teachers and how these behaviours influence their teaching competency. Furthermore, the student teachers who were included in the study were Foundation Phase students who teach mostly in their first language (the use of the first language or mother tongue is encouraged from Grade R to Grade 3) and it could therefore be assumed that they were competent in their language abilities to teach in the Foundation Phase. Classroom communication, i.e. the interpersonal and instructional communication development of the student teachers, was not included in the formal curriculum at the time when this study was conducted, and as a result received relatively little attention.

This study explores an issue related to teacher preparation which is relevant to the requirements of the workplace. It furthermore aims to investigate the development of the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers. Figure 1.1 places this study

between the real-world situation, i.e. the student teacher enrolled for the B Ed degree programme, and the actual workplace requirements, i.e. the minimum requirements for a beginning teacher entering the profession. Once again, I reiterate that this study is conducted from a communication education perspective and not from a teacher education or professional development perspective. It was therefore necessary to explain the specific location of the study. I explain my position visually, by using the idea of a mathematical calculation to provide structure. The challenge here is to understand how the discipline of communication education can support the preparation of student teachers.

Figure 1.1 Locating the study



Student teachers enter the B Ed degree programme with basic (in terms of teaching) but very diverse communication behaviours. The workplace requires a graduate who as an educated beginner teacher is competent in classroom communication, amongst others. The underlying claim of the MRTEQ policy (2011) is that the B Ed degree will provide student teachers with a programme that ought to deliver competent and educated beginner teachers. Whether this mandate is reasonable, does not fall within the scope of this specific study. However, the reality still holds: a) student teachers progress through the B Ed degree programme in which they should, according to the policy on the MTREQ (2011:53), develop effective classroom communication behaviours; and (b) the B Ed degree (General Education and Training) programme, at the time the study was conducted, did not address classroom communication in any specific subject. It is within this context that the following section provides the motivation for the study.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Effective interpersonal and instructional communication skills are essential teaching tools[4], that student teachers need in order to be able to develop into the competent teachers our country needs. However, as I will explain in this section, the university where this study was conducted does not formally offer classroom communication studies as part of the B Ed degree (GET) programme. It is assumed that student teachers will develop effective classroom communication behaviours and acquire the necessary classroom communication strategies during the teaching practice sessions. Whether this happens in reality, and how this develops, is not explicitly monitored in this degree.

At this stage, I feel the necessity to provide some insight into my personal motivation to conduct this investigation. As mentioned earlier, I am the lecturer responsible for the subject Drama-in-education at the university where this study was conducted. Over the years it became apparent to me that there seems to be an assumption that teaching is acting; and that the subject Drama-in-Education should assist in providing student teachers with the necessary 'acting skills' so that they can 'present' better lessons. Despite the logical argument that Drama-in-Education is not acting or Theatre-in-Education, and therefore does not imply the development of acting skills, it bothered me that there was the expectation that if student teachers can be trained to be actors, this would have a positive effect on their teaching. The majority of the student teachers in my lectures will never become actors and have no desire to do so. Does this then mean that they will not be able to develop into effective teachers? Furthermore, over the years I have become more critical of the notion that effective presentation skills are synonymous to effective teaching skills, especially in Foundation Phase classrooms. I realised that drama/acting and presentation skills both could be linked to communication in general, and it was this realisation that formed my motivation to investigate the topic.

[4] Chapter 2 provides a detailed review of existing literature in order to substantiate my strong stance in this regard.

The teaching competence of student teachers is evaluated twice a year during teaching practice sessions. To secure objectivity and fairness, student teachers are often not evaluated by the same external evaluator more than once or twice over the four-year period. This guarantees a situation where no student teacher is evaluated more than once by the same person over the four-year period. While this system strives to ensure objectivity, it proves to be problematic in following actual development. For the purpose of this study, I arranged with the management of the Faculty of Education at the university to evaluate the same group of student teachers over the duration of the four-year period (2009 – 2012) in order to be in a better position to observe changes in their practice and/or behaviours over time. The main focus of the evaluation is the ability of the student teachers to plan and execute lessons that demonstrate an understanding of various teaching strategies, as well as some knowledge of learning theories. Classroom communication behaviours are commented on, but there is the underlying assumption that the behaviours will improve with time and exposure.

It is important to reiterate that the student teachers who took part in this study were not exposed to any developmental or instructional communication theory. In other words, they were placed in the schools without any theoretical background related to their communication behaviours and the possible impact this could have on them in this process of learning to teach. Furthermore, if student teachers are either highly apprehensive about discussions with the mentor teacher or generally not willing to communicate, this could hinder possible discussions between them and the mentor teachers and, in doing so, the development of their teaching skills. Unfortunately, but understandably, student teachers find it difficult to consider aspects of teaching that are not part of the immediate lesson plan. Tomkins (2006:10) claims that teachers can become so focused on the implementation of the strategies as they plan them, that they do not have time to consider their classroom communication, which is crucial for effective teaching and learning. Despite evidence that points to the importance of classroom communication in teaching, it is an important area that is omitted from general teacher education curricula (McCroskey *et al.* 2006).

The following sections will provide more detailed information regarding the structure of the teaching practice sessions, as well as the roles of the mentor teachers and external evaluators in the process.

The structure of teaching practice

As part of the subject Professional Practice, student teachers enrolled for the B Ed: Foundation Phase degree have to get practical experience in schools for eight weeks every year. This is divided into two sessions annually: the first takes place after the April school holiday and the second after the July school holiday.

The B Ed: Foundation Phase degree qualifies student teachers to teach Grades R to 3 and therefore the teaching practice model is designed to give them sufficient exposure to the practice of teaching in each of the four grades. In the first year student teachers are placed in Grade R classrooms and in the second year in Grade 1classrooms. In the third year they can be placed in either of Grade 2 or Grade 3, and then in the final year they are placed in the grade to which they have not yet been exposed. During the teaching practice sessions student teachers are expected to observe the teaching of the mentor teacher[5], to assist where needed, as well as to plan and teach a predetermined number of lessons. Some of these lessons are evaluated by the mentor teacher and some by an external evaluator who is either a lecturer from the Foundation Phase Department or someone appointed by the university.

The teaching practice procedure described above gives an indication that the university where this study was conducted, considers the teaching practice sessions as a situated learning experience. Learning, according to Lave and Wenger (1991:31) "is an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice" and I want to argue that this is true also in the process of learning to teach. The teaching practice model used at this university is embedded in a specific situated experience, namely the classroom, which by nature is a social space. Student teachers are placed in schools for 32 weeks over the four-year period to gain practical experience. It is during these teaching practice sessions that the process of learning to teach is expected to continue in very specific situations. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), situated learning is especially relevant in contexts where practical knowledge has to be acquired. This model of teaching practice requires that student teachers at first experience the situated activity as initial peripheral participators, but ultimately, by becoming more actively involved in the learning process, progress to more legitimate participation. This implies that

[5] The class teacher in whose class the student teacher will spend her time during teaching practice.

the apprentice, in this instance the student teacher, learns from the expert, the mentor teacher. In other words, student teachers are placed in situated learning experiences, i.e. classrooms, for eight weeks annually where they learn to teach – or that is the assumption. However, peripheral participation can only evolve to authentic learning opportunities through detailed discussions between mentor teacher and student teacher (Fisher and Van Andel 2002). Through these discussions mentor teachers can guide student teachers by giving explanations related to their own practice as teachers, the different levels at which learners are learning, and also by giving advice related to the practice of the student teacher (Robinson 2000).

Student teachers are therefore placed in schools where the process of learning to teach should continue in specific situated situations. Situated learning, according to Lave and Wenger (1991), is particularly useful in a context where practical knowledge has to be acquired. This implies that the apprentice, in this instance the student teacher, learns from the expert, the mentor teacher. Legitimate peripheral participation, according to Lave and Wenger (1991:95) "provides them with more than an 'observational' lookout post: it crucially involves *participation* as a way of learning – of both absorbing and being absorbed in – the culture of practice". In other words, student teachers are placed in classrooms where they should absorb learning and engage with the teachers and therefore they need to feel confident about their communication skills to initiate and develop their own learning process.

The role of the mentor teacher

The mentor teacher is the person with whom a student teacher is placed for the duration of the teaching practice session, i.e. it is the teacher in whose classroom the student teacher will execute the requirements of the teaching practice. The mentor teacher guides the student teacher in the planning and execution of the lessons and in doing so assists the student teacher to practically apply the theory addressed during lectures at the university.

The mentor teacher is regarded as the expert in the classroom and the student teacher is supposed to make use of every opportunity to learn how to teach. Student teachers learn to teach by observing the practice of mentor teachers and also by discussing teaching and learning incidents and issues with the mentor teacher. These discussions can take place during the school day, but they will most probably take place after the school day when the

student teacher and mentor teacher prepare for the following day. The student teacher is expected to ask for advice and to help wherever needed during the teaching practice session. This is the space where the theory that student teachers acquire in other subjects at the university must be translated into practice and connections must be made between theory and practice, but also where shortcomings are to be addressed. For this type of critical learning to take place an effective interpersonal relationship between the student teacher and the mentor teacher is an important foundation. Additionally, the mentor teacher should mentor the student teacher, which means that the relationship between them should be of such a nature that the student teacher will be receptive of criticism that can contribute towards better teaching and learning.

The mentors are also expected to evaluate some of the lessons presented by student teachers and to give them appropriate feedback that could help to improve the execution of their lessons. This aspect obviously places a natural strain on the development of the interpersonal relationship between mentor and student teacher; however, this is an important aspect which cannot be avoided.

The role of the external evaluator

In essence, the external evaluator is the moderator of the teaching practice process. External evaluators are either lecturers in the Foundation Phase, or part-time evaluators employed by the university for this specific purpose. Part-time evaluators are carefully selected by the teaching practice coordinator with specific criteria in mind, such as knowledge of Foundation Phase teaching and learning and sufficient years of experience in the field. External evaluators attend sessions during which teaching related matters, such as the professionalism of the student teachers, expectations and advice, are discussed. The discussions between mentor teacher and evaluator are very important to ascertain whether the lesson evaluated by the evaluator was, in fact, a true reflection of the potential of the student teacher. In some instances the anxiety that the student teacher experiences about the evaluation lesson has a negative impact on the execution of the lesson. The opposite reaction can of course also occur. Sometimes the student teacher's performance is merely average throughout the session, but then she “window-dresses” for the evaluation lesson, which is then obviously not a true reflection of the standard of her performance. The discussion between the external evaluator

and the mentor teacher can confirm whether the lesson that was evaluated by the external evaluator reflects the usual practice of the student teacher throughout the teaching practice session or not.

Within the above-mentioned context, the aim of this study is to investigate how the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers develop over a four-year period. Further clarification regarding the concept of classroom communication is necessary and will subsequently be explained by means of a graphic representation of the study.

1.4 GRAPHIC REPRENSENTATION OF THE STUDY

The previous sections aimed to locate the study within the parameters of the reality experienced at a Western Cape university and the requirements of the profession. However, at this stage a graphical representation of the study is required to explicate the relationship between the various concepts that will be investigated. A graphic representation is necessary because the investigation and the problem are, in fact, located in two different disciplines. The problem is located within the discipline of teacher education, but it is investigated from a communication education perspective. The graphical representation presented in Figure 1.2 should further assist with the conceptualisation of the study.

Figure 1.2 positions classroom communication as the focus of the investigation. It is important to bear in mind that the aim of this study is to investigate the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers specifically – therefore, henceforth all discussions should be considered from the perspective of the student teachers. Classroom communication, as will be discussed in Chapter 2, has developed from the theory of developmental (or interpersonal) communication research as well as instructional communication research. This is particularly relevant because student teachers are placed in situated experiences in schools throughout the degree programme (see Sections 1.3 and 3.6.1) where both their interpersonal and instructional behaviours are important elements in the process of learning to teach.

Figure 1.2: Graphic representation of the study

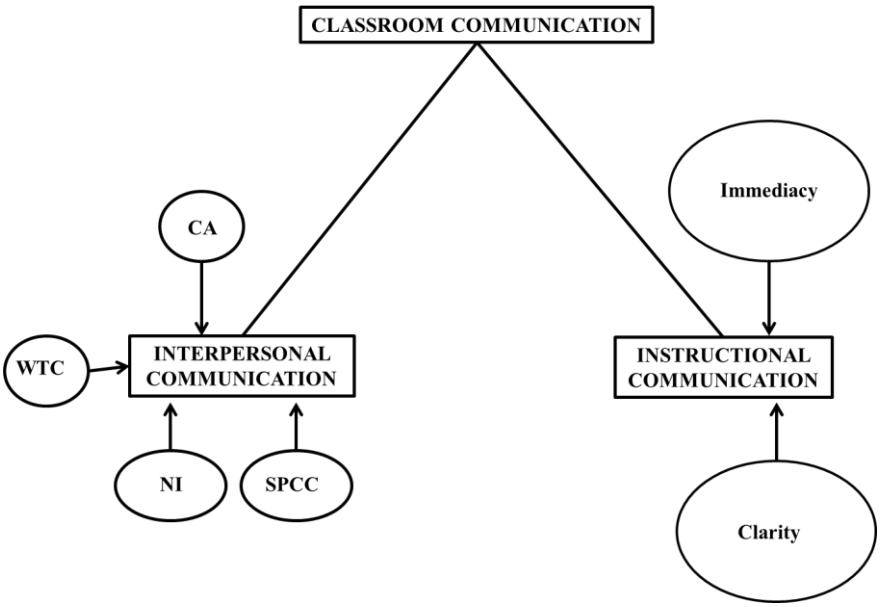


Figure 1.2 also shows that the following aspects influence interpersonal communication behaviour: levels of communication apprehension (CA), willingness to communicate (WTC), nonverbal immediacy behaviours (NIS) as well as levels of self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) (McCroskey 1982; McCroskey and McCroskey 1988; McCroskey 1992; Richmond, McCroskey & Johnson 2003). (Refer to Section 1.7 for further clarification in this regard.) Similarly, the quality of instructional communication behaviours of student teachers is influenced by various factors of which two are of particular importance to this investigation, namely clarity and immediacy. (See Section 2.3 for a more detailed explanation.)

1.5 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS

The aim of the study was to investigate the perceptions regarding the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase (FP) student teachers enrolled in the B Ed degree programme at a Western Cape university over an extended period of time. The overarching question, which guided the investigation, was:

To what extent do perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of a B Ed degree?

The following sub-question guided the quantitative phase of the investigation: To what extent do FP student teachers experience change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

In an attempt to answer the above-mentioned question, FP student teachers were surveyed annually with the following self-assessment measures[6]:

- Nonverbal-immediacy Scale – Self-report (NIS-S)
- Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)
- Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC)
- Self-perceived Communication Competence (SPCC)

The aim of the qualitative phase of the study was to investigate the instructional communication development of FP student teachers over time from the perspective of open-ended evaluations by external evaluators. The following two qualitative sub-questions were subsequently developed:

Q1. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

Q2. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

However, before commencing with the investigation it was necessary to execute an in-depth review of existing literature related to interpersonal and instructional communication. This will be presented in Chapter 2.

[6] Section 3.6 will explain these in detail.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Learning to teach is in essence a longitudinal phenomenon. It was therefore logical to follow a longitudinal approach to examine the process. Singer and Willett (1996: 267) find it ironic that few studies of teaching are truly longitudinal. Roth (1999:100) explains that researchers who are particularly interested in the practical teaching component of a teacher education programme make use of longitudinal methodologies. Therefore, in order to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between classroom communication and learning to teach, a longitudinal case study approach was used to get a broad overview of the process of classroom communication development of student teachers during the B Ed degree programme.

The study is located within a pragmatic paradigm. In agreement with Creswell (2009:6), as researcher I prefer to refer to a worldview perspective, rather than ontological and epistemological beliefs, which frames my thinking and decisions. Within this worldview perspective, the study is problem-centered and located in real-world practice, because it investigated the development of the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers (problem) within the classroom context (real-world).

As a pragmatic social scientist, I attempt to understand human beings in their natural environments, in this case student teachers in the classroom, and I am specifically interested in the development of the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers over time. This is in agreement with Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:15) who argue that all social sciences research represents an attempt to make reasonable assertions about human beings in their social context. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:7) claim that the pragmatic researcher places emphasis on the research problem as well as on the importance and purpose of the research. The pragmatist is therefore interested in finding explanations for socially situated problems (Creswell 2009).

Pragmatism offers an alternative worldview to the more traditional positivism or post positivism approach and bypasses contentious problems regarding truth and reality to focus

on real-world problems (Feilzer 2010:7/8). Pragmatism developed from research by Dewey, Rorty and Davidson and regards truth as "what works" in the attempt to understand a particular phenomenon (Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark 2007:271) and is therefore "not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality" (Creswell 2003:12).

From this perspective the world is not an 'absolute unity' and therefore it is particularly suited to the mixed methods researcher who endeavours to utilize quantitative, as well as qualitative data in order to understand a real-world, socially-based problem. The purpose of the multi-method approach was essentially to increase the scope of the study in order to investigate and reflect on perceptions in an attempt to understand social and human behaviour. A developmental aspect is included because the sample for the qualitative phase was chosen from the results of the first wave of quantitative results. I agree with Greene, Caracelli and Graham's (1989:256) motivation for combining methods in a single study[7]:

- triangulation - to seek convergence or corroboration
- *complementary method*- in order to enhance and/or clarify
- *developmental method* - where, sequentially, results from the first method informs or develops the second method
- initiation - where possible contradictions or new perspectives emerge
- *expansion* - to add scope and breadth to the study.

I decided to follow a convergent parallel design proposed by Creswell (2011:77). This meant that, as will be explained in Section 3.4, in essence both sets of data would be collected concurrently, but also that the analysis would be done separately. Although I attempted to merge the results in order to seek convergence or clarification, I was more interested in using mixed methods to expand the study in order to add scope and breadth to the investigation (Greene *et al.* 1989). I was aware of the inherent differences between the quantitative and qualitative data sets (presented in 1.4). However, I felt that it was necessary to include both in order to investigate the problem as thoroughly as possible. The study had to acknowledge that classroom communication functions on two distinct levels, namely interpersonally between teachers and learners as well as between mentor teachers and student teachers, but also instructionally via clarity and immediacy behaviours in order to mediate learning. The additional dimension of the teachers being student teachers, who are in training, necessitated

[7] The italicised terms reflect the methods chosen for the purpose of this study.

the inclusion of more qualitative views on their teaching and instructional communication behaviours, as will be explained in full in Section 3.3.

1.6.1 Data collection procedure

1.6.1.1 Quantitative data: surveys

All General Education and Training (GET[8]) first year student teachers who agreed to participate in this study completed four self-report measures. They completed these at the beginning of each of the four years of their degree. This was done in order to follow any likely changes in their views of their personal communicative behaviour. Four self-report instruments, namely the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24), the Willingness to Communication Scale (WTC), Self-report on Communication Competence (SPCC) and the Nonverbal Immediacy Scale – Self Report (NIS-S) were used. These measures were developed by Dr James McCroskey and colleagues and are available for research purposes from his website (http://www.jamescmccroskey.com). They can be used in a variety of contexts with high reliability and validity (Richmond *et al.* 2003:515).

It is important to emphasise here that all these surveys are self-reports which reflect the perception of the student teacher about his/her own communication behaviours. Whilst it is true that the perception one has of one's own behaviour may not be a true reflection of the actual behaviour, it does influence the level of interaction that one enters into. For example, if a person perceives that he/she is not competent in communication, he/she is less likely to enter into situations that require communication, with the result that such a person deprives him/herself from exposure which may improve communication competence.

1.6.1.2 Qualitative data: Case study

Qualitative research, according to Strelitz (2005), is primarily concerned with understanding a particular phenomenon, rather than attempting to generalise. He further states that qualitative research favours the generation of "thick" descriptions by using methods such as case studies, interviews and observations. A case study approach was used in this study in

[8] The GET band includes student teachers in the Foundation Phase, as well as student teachers in the Intermediate and Senior Phases.

order to gain a deeper understanding of the development of the instructional communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers based on the perceptions of external evaluators of the student teachers' practice. External evaluators wrote evaluation reports based on the observed practice of the student teacher during a formal evaluation lesson. These evaluation reports are the most accurate description of what transpired during an evaluation lesson. However, each student teacher received 16 evaluation reports over the course of the four years, which could lead to a potential data set of 1088 evaluation reports. This is not a realistic size and I therefore decided, as will be explained in Section 3.5.2, to select a small group of FP student teachers for the qualitative phase of the study.

1.6.2 Data analysis

The study was conceptualised to collect quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and then to find correspondences or disagreements between the two sets of data. However, it was necessary to choose the smaller sample for the qualitative phase based on the results of the first wave of quantitative data (see section 3.5.2). It is important to note that after the initial analysis of the quantitative data no further analysis took place until all data, quantitative and qualitative, had been collected. This is contrary to procedures normally suggested, especially related to the qualitative analysis. The rationale for diverting from the norm was an attempt to minimise possible bias. As explained in Section 3.6.2 and 3.9.2, I had to fulfil the roles of both external evaluator and researcher and therefore had to stay as objective as possible. I had to ensure that I did not do an evaluation with prior knowledge that could bias my evaluation of the student teacher's performance.

As I explain in Chapter 3, the first wave of the quantitative data was collected, captured and analysed directly after it was gathered in 2009. This was done because the results of the first wave of quantitative data were used to determine the sample of student teachers who would be asked to participate in the qualitative phase of the investigation. (See Section 3.5 for the sampling procedure.) All subsequent analyses were done at the end of the longitudinal collection process. The quantitative data was processed and analysed by the Centre for Statistical Consultation (CSC) at the University of Stellenbosch.

The purpose of the quantitative phase was to collect data which would follow changes in the self-perceptions of student teachers regarding their communication behaviours. As will be explained in Section 3.8.2, the analysis of the qualitative data was a long and iterative process. It was clear that it would necessitate going back often: at times to the original data set, but also to look at the same condensed data set from another angle. The process was influenced by examples of procedures described by various authors, such as Creswell (2009), Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) and Miles and Huberman (1984). As will be explained in Chapters 3 and 5, I first had to extract units of meaningful text from the evaluation reports in order to create two data sets, one related to clarity and the other to immediacy. I coded the units of text and created categories, which were then grouped, rearranged and finally these themes were linked to the literature.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following key concepts are used throughout this dissertation and are explained briefly:

Communication behaviour – behavioural patterns of communication, i.e. the way in which people communicate. I unconventionally often refer to the plural "behaviours" as in the context of this study it refers to more than one type of behaviour.

Classroom communication – all communicative interactions that take place in a classroom. In the context of this study, this refers to interaction between student teacher and mentor teacher and also between student teacher and learners.

External evaluator – a lecturer from the Faculty of Education at the university, or a part-time evaluator, who evaluates the student teacher and discusses possible problems with the mentor teacher.

Mentor teacher – the teacher who is responsible for the class in which the student teacher is placed for the duration of teaching practice – the university where this study was conducted

refers to this teacher as a tutor teacher, however, as most authors seem to prefer *mentor teacher* I have decided to follow suit.

Student teacher – when the students enrolled in the B Ed degree programme are placed in schools to get the required professional practice development they are referred to as student teachers.

Teaching practice – the practical component of the B Ed degree which addresses the practical learning requirements of the National Qualifications Framework (DHET 2011). The teaching practice experience at the university where this study was conducted is divided into two sessions: four weeks in the second term and another four weeks in the third term.

Some of the concepts are more complex in nature and subsequently receive considerable attention in Chapter 2; however, for ease of understanding they are briefly mentioned here.

Clarity - Chesebro (1999:2) defines clarity as "a variable which represents the process by which an instructor is able to effectively stimulate the desired meaning of course content and processes in the minds of students through the use of appropriately-structured verbal and nonverbal messages".

Communication Apprehension - "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons (McCroskey 1977:79)." It is important to note that CA refers to an individual's perception of his/her communication skills, rather than to the actual ability to communicate.

Immediacy - immediacy reduces the psychological and physical distance between people. Valencic, McCroskey and Richmond (2005:2) credit Mehrabian (1969) and Andersen (1979) with the advancing of verbal and non-verbal immediacy as behaviours, which could increase closeness, liking and interaction between individuals. The use of non-verbal behaviours such

as eye contact, gestures and movement in the classroom whilst teaching assists with the 'getting and keeping' of the attention of learners (Valencic *et al.* 2005:2).

Willingness to Communicate - the phenomenon that individuals differ greatly in the degree to which they are willing to initiate and sustain conversations, despite the fact that speech is a crucial element of interpersonal communication and relationships (McCroskey and Richmond 1987:138).

Self-perceived communication competence – the perception one has regarding his/her own communication competence.

Socio-communicative style - the perceptions that others have regarding an individual's communication behaviour (Richmond and Martin 1998:134). This refers to distinct characteristics of interpersonal communication which are displayed by levels of assertiveness, responsiveness and versatility (Richmond and Martin 1998:135; Richmond 2002a).

1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This aim of this chapter was to introduce the study. It was important to explain the specific context within which the investigation took place as background to the motivation for the study. In addition, it provided a conceptual map, addressed the research question as well as the design and methodology.

Chapter 2 presents the review of existing literature. The first section focuses on interpersonal communication (IPC). It introduces general IPC theory, as well as approaches to IPC. Thereafter follows a discussion on competence in IPC, and a section devoted to a discussion on communication apprehension (CA) and willingness to communicate (WTC). These constructs help to further understanding of interpersonal communication behaviour. The second part of Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to instructional communication. Firstly, it discusses instructional communication competence (ICC), as well as its role in effective teaching and learning. Thereafter it examines the socio-communicative style (SCS) of a teacher, as well as teacher clarity and teacher immediacy from a teaching perspective.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodology of the study. It presents the rationale for using a longitudinal mixed method approach as well as an overview of the data collection and reduction procedures. Thereafter the chapter focuses on the process of data analysis related to the quantitative and qualitative phase respectively, and finally it addresses issues related to trustworthiness.

Chapter 4 provides a detailed account of the quantitative phase of this study. It presents the results of the quantitative data as well an interpretation of the results, with a specific focus on the implications of the results in the context of teacher preparation. Chapter 5 addresses the qualitative phase of the study by discussing the qualitative analysis and interpretation of the results in a more integrated manner, as well as the implications related to teacher education. Chapter 6 concludes the study by synthesising the quantitative and qualitative results in order to address the research question. In addition, the chapter describes the contributions of the study as well as the implications of the findings related to teacher preparation. Finally, it

makes recommendations about change in teacher education curricula, and identifies opportunities for future research.

In the following chapter, the literature related to classroom communication will be discussed by reviewing existing literature about interpersonal communication (IPC) and instructional communication(IC).

CHAPTER TWO:

CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

The single biggest problem in communication is the illusion that it has taken place.

George Bernard Shaw

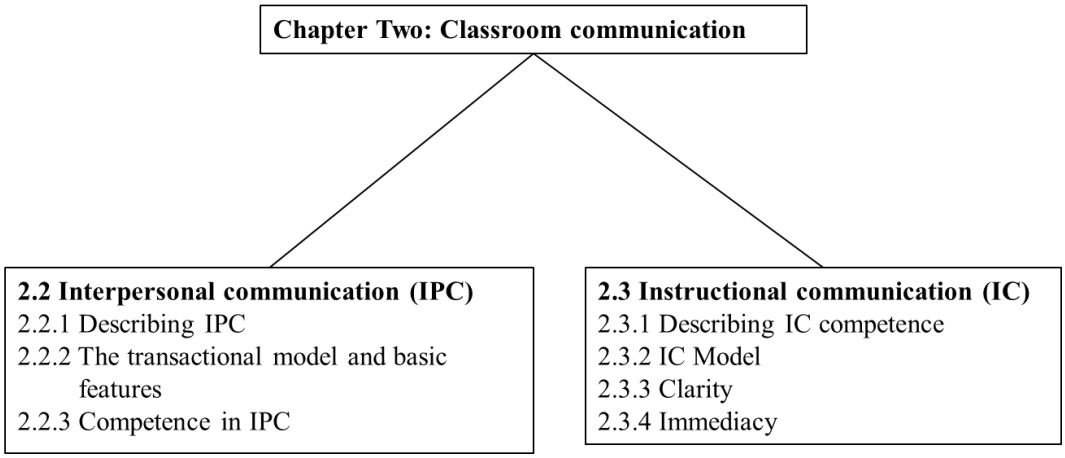
2.1 INTRODUCTION

Classroom communication directs teaching and learning and is therefore a crucial element in any learning environment. Effective classroom communication "threads the fabric of teaching and learning" (Civikly-Powel 1999:63) and is at the core of any quality classroom setting (Polk 2006:25). In 1978, Hurt, Scott and McCroskey (1978:3) wrote in the first book on instructional communication "the difference between knowing and teaching is effective communication in the classroom". The classroom is an interpersonal, but also an instructional environment which implies that classroom communication finds expression in both the interpersonal and the instructional domain. Thus, the foundation of classroom communication lies within two fields within the communication education discipline, namely interpersonal communication and instructional communication.

As the conceptual map in Figure 2.1 shows, this study focuses on classroom communication. As such, the literature overview presented in this chapter draws its insights from the discipline of communication education. Simonds and Cooper (2011) explain that communication education researchers focus mainly on three areas within the discipline, namely communication pedagogy (how to teach communication), developmental communication (how interpersonal communication skills develop) and instructional communication (how teachers use communication in their classes). Communication pedagogy falls outside the scope of this study and will therefore not be included in this literature review. The first part of the review will relate specifically to issues regarding developmental communication, specifically related to interpersonal communication and factors influencing the development of interpersonal communication such as socio-communicative style, communication apprehension and willingness to communicate. Interpersonal communication theory is

understandably more general and instructional communication more specific in nature. However, in the interest of succinctness, discussions regarding interpersonal communication (IPC) will be directly applied to the classroom, which will highlight the relevance of this for education. The second part will address instructional communication research, specifically focussing on teacher clarity and teacher immediacy. The following diagram in Figure 2.1 gives an indication of the main foci of this chapter.

Figure 2.1 Chapter 2: Conceptual map



The general aim of this chapter is to provide not only a theoretical background for this study, but also the necessary framework to link interpersonal[9] communication and instructional communication to classroom communication. Section 2.2 firstly focuses on the meaning and nature of interpersonal communication (IPC) competence and its relevance for the teaching and learning environment. Section 2.3 draws the focus to instructional communication competence and explains the importance of immediacy and clarity for instructional communication (IC) competence.

[9] Although the area of research is generally referred to as developmental communication, from here on the term interpersonal communication will be used in order to narrow the focus.

2.2 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION (IPC) IN THE CLASSROOM

2.2.1 Describing IPC

McCroskey and Richmond [10](1996:3) define interpersonal communication as "the process by which one person stimulates meaning in the mind of another person through verbal and nonverbal messages". This definition highlights the importance of a shared meaning/understanding during interpersonal interaction. Furthermore, McCroskey and Richmond (1996:90) state that although IPC is rooted in general communication competence, it involves additional critical elements (for a detailed discussion of these elements, see Section 2.3.2.1), namely assertiveness, responsiveness and versatility. General communication competence refers to the ability to make one's thoughts known orally or in writing (McCroskey & Richmond 1996). IPC is fundamental in any communicative interaction (Tubbs & Moss 2003). On the one hand, every communicative interaction in the classroom is determined by the relationship between the teacher and learner involved. The teacher and learners naturally also communicate outside the classroom context which obviously influences the relationship further; however, this falls outside the scope of this study. On the other hand, every communicative act influences the nature of the relationship between teacher and learner. Dainton and Zelley (2004:51) mention that whilst a variety of definitions of interpersonal communication can be offered, it is important to note that it "refers to the content and quality of messages relayed and the possibility of further relationship development". The relationship which develops because of interpersonal interaction is a function of IPC.

Classroom communication is at the core of every learning situation and the relationship between teacher and learner is of the essence (Civikly-Powel 1999:61). For the purpose of this study the relationship between teacher and learner, in fact, refers to three different relationships, namely (a) between teacher and learner; (b) between mentor teacher and student teacher; and (c) between student teacher and learners. However, in the interest of conciseness, I have decided to refer to the teacher-learner relationship in general in this

[10] It is important to note that the research by James McCroskey and Virginia Peck Richmond forms the theoretical basis for my research. James McCroskey is recognised as the most prolific author and Virginia Richmond as fourth most prolific author on various topics related to the field of communication in various journals over a period of almost 100 years (McCroskey *et al.* 2006).

chapter. However, in the discussion of the implications of the results of this study as presented in Section 4.6, I will distinguish between these different relationships.

The relationships mentioned above are by implication interpersonal in nature. As such it seems logical that it will follow a similar developmental path as other interpersonal relationships. De Vito (1986:53) claims that "the development of the interpersonal relationship is viewed as the means by which more effective, efficient, and satisfying teaching and learning may take place". The capacity of the teacher and the learner to negotiate the process and the nature of the teacher-learner relationship could affect the achievement of the communicative goals which could, in turn, affect learning outcomes (Frymier and Houser 2000:207). In addition, every classroom presents a unique, sensitive and dynamic context, which means that no two classrooms will ever be the same and teachers and learners may need to adjust their communicative patterns to suit the particular environment.

As with any other interpersonal relationship, teacher and learner initially meet and then follow a process during which both parties fulfil the roles of speaker and listener as they exchange information. Similar to any other type of communication interaction there is an ultimate goal to achieve – i.e. a shared understanding. In the context of the classroom, it is important for the teacher to know that the learners understand him/her (Prinsloo and Evans 2013), but also for the learners to know that the teacher understands them.

The nature of the interpersonal relationship between teacher and learners determines the quality of the teaching and learning environment. For the purpose of this study, it is also necessary to bear in mind that the relationship between the mentor teacher and the student should also be considered here[11]. De Vito (1986:54-55) proposes a seven-stage model for the development of the interpersonal relationship in an educational setting.

- Stage 1: Pre-contact – This stage deals primarily with preconceptions of the participants prior to any contact. The preconceived ideas of the teachers and learners about each other, the subject, achievement, ability, as well as attitudinal dispositions may have an effect on the nature of the relationship which is about to be entered into.

[11] The implications of this relationship will be addressed in Section 4.6.1.

The same holds true for the relationship between mentor teacher and student teacher; previous experiences related to this context may influence the initial interaction.

- Stage 2: Awareness – The initial awareness or perception between teachers and learners is unilateral in nature. The learners first have an awareness of the teacher, which the teacher does not have of the learners (De Vito 1986). Similarly, student teachers enter into the situation which is controlled by the mentor teacher. In both instances, a more mutual awareness develops as the relationship develops.
- Stage 3: Contact – The initial contact is nonverbal, followed by verbal contact. First impressions are important for teaching and learning because these reveal characteristics. Furthermore, first impressions are unavoidable, even though one wishes not to judge. First impressions from the perspective of the teacher as well as the learners are often created by nonverbal cues, such as appearances, tone of voice and facial expression. These impressions may also be influenced by the social context and culture of the respective parties. Similarly, student teachers and mentor teachers form perceptions of each other based on the initial contact.
- Stage 4: Involvement – During this stage the various parties, namely teachers and learners, but also mentor teachers and tutor teachers, can move away from a stereotypical view of each other. It involves a process of testing each other's personalities and relational dispositions, which unfortunately is not catered for in many educational settings.
- Stage 5: Intimacy – This happens when the parties involved are able to trust each other with personal information. Learners and teachers, also student teachers and mentor teachers, form opinions of each other based on knowledge about the other, rather than the role they play in the classroom. There is the potential for the development of a deeper understanding of actions and reactions. The nature of the rules guiding the interaction during this stage is much more personal and context-sensitive.
- Stage 6: Deterioration – A stage where the learner or student teacher is preparing to leave the guidance of the teacher or mentor teacher; and establish him/herself independently. This stage in educational relationships is much more positive than in personal relationships, in which case the deterioration stage signifies the end of a relationship and a loosening of the bonds between people. In educational settings the deterioration stage represents a normal next stage in the interpersonal development.

- Stage 7: Dissolution – This stage symbolises the final separation between the learner and the teacher, or in the context of this study, between the mentor teacher and the tutor teacher. In the Foundation Phase this happens at the end of every year, because the learners progress to the next grade with a new class teacher. From the perspective of the student teacher, this will happen every year at the end of the last teaching practice session. This could also seen as positive because of the possibility for new relationships to be entered into; learners will meet new class teachers and student teachers will meet new mentor teachers.

The communication requirements in the relationships in educational settings are similar to those of most interpersonal relationships (Frymier and Houser 2000:208). The difference between interpersonal interaction in a friendship and the interpersonal interaction between teacher and learner or mentor teacher and student teacher, manifests in the following respects: firstly, friendships take time to develop and to move from the impersonal to a trusting interpersonal relationship. The relationship in an educational environment typically has to develop much quicker in order for the learner/student teacher to be able to trust and learn from the teacher/mentor teacher. Secondly, status plays a significant role in this relationship, which is not relevant in friendships. Friends are generally of equal status, whereas there is a professional divide between learner and teacher as well as between student teacher and a mentor teacher. It is important to note that these differences do not affect the development and maintenance of the relationship to the detriment of learning and teaching (Frymier and Houser 2000:208).

Wubbels and Brekelmans (2012:1241) and others, such as Civikly-Powel (1999:63), posit that the interpersonal interaction between teacher and learner affects their relationship. The nature of the relationship has the potential to include or exclude both teacher and learner at any given time. Valencic *et al.* (2005:1) mention that the relationship between teacher and learner in the classroom can either assist or hinder learning. The manner in which the communication takes place impacts on the teacher-learner relationship, but the level of interaction between the two parties is also affected by the nature of the relationship. This also holds true for the relationship between mentor teacher and student teacher. As explained in Section 1.3, student teachers are placed in a situated learning experience, initially as a legitimate peripheral participant. However, as Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest, in order to

move from legitimate peripheral participant to more active participant, student teachers are in fact required to participate. They further argue that this level of participation refers "to a more encompassing process of being active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities" (Wenger 1998:4). Student teachers, therefore, need to commit to enter into the school system where they are required to form interpersonal relationships through communication with mentor teachers so that the mentor teachers can guide them.

The following sub-section will describe the transaction model, as described by Simonds and Cooper (2011), and basic features of interpersonal communication.

2.2.2 The transactional model and basic features of IPC

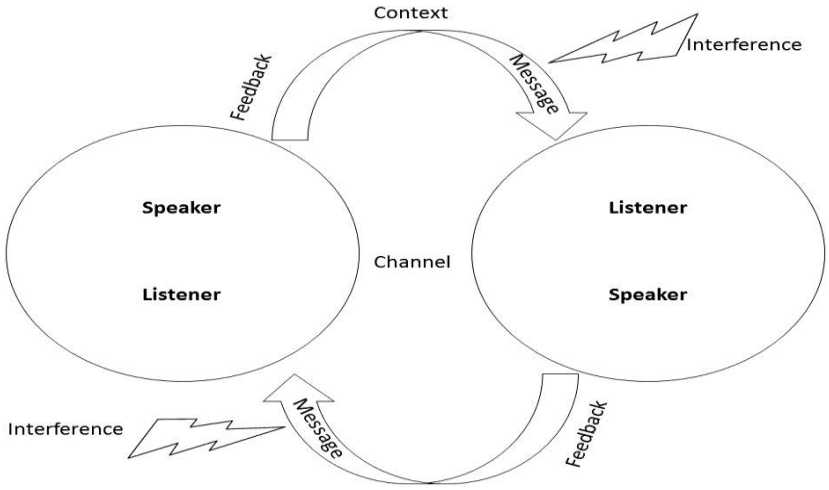
During IPC teachers and learners, but also mentor teachers and student teachers, are simultaneously the senders and receivers of messages. Thus, both are involved in maintaining the relationship and contribute to the development of the relationship through their interaction with each other. The extent to which they commit to the process will either enhance or hinder the development of this relationship. If either is not prepared to engage with the other, it could have a serious effect on the quality of their relationship and subsequently, on the quality of teaching and learning. For effective teaching and learning to take place, both parties need to be willing to participate in the interaction.

The transactional model for IPC where both teacher and learner are simultaneously involved in the communication activities is therefore relevant for analysing the communication process during teaching and learning; from the perspective of the learner, but also regarding the development of the student teacher. The transactional interpretation of classroom communication has three important implications: namely (1) it is never-ending, (2) participants are interacting simultaneously, and (3) it is on-going, as concurrent action constantly affects the relationship between the parties (Alberts, Nakayama and Martin 2007:16).

Figure 2.2 illustrates the transactional model of IPC. A very important feature is the fact that, as mentioned previously, both sending and receiving take place simultaneously. However,

"… a person may display the sending or receiving behaviour more predominantly" (Civikly 1992a:15). The transactional approach also adds the element of reciprocity. Responses from others affect future behaviour, as well as the nature of the interaction (Ruesch 1987:21). The transaction during interpersonal communication becomes evident during the feedback phase, which points to the circular and continual nature of interpersonal communication. This is where the listener/receiver becomes the speaker/sender and the speaker/sender the listener/receiver (Prinsloo and Evans 2013:5).

Figure 2.2 The transactional model of interpersonal communication



Source: Simonds and Cooper (2011:10).

2.2.2.1 Elements involved in IPC

The following section provides brief explanations of the various elements involved in the process, with specific reference to the classroom environment.

- *People*: Interpersonal communication inherently involves people (Simonds and Cooper 2011) who are simultaneously speakers and listeners[12]. In the classroom situation, interpersonal communication takes place, not only between teacher and learner, but also amongst the learners themselves and in the case of this study, between

[12] Other authors, such as Prinsloo and Evans (2013) and Tubbs and Moss (2003) prefer the terms *sender* and *receiver*.

the mentor teacher and the student teacher. It is important to consider that all participants in this process are individuals with unique and different frames of reference, which are determined by various factors, such as gender, culture, values, identities, attitudes and personal experiences (Prinsloo and Evans 2013:4). These frames of reference may influence the interpretation and formulation of messages.

- *Message*: The message is the actual information negotiated between the people involved in the communication process. It becomes the building blocks of the communicative interaction (Alberts *et al.* 2007:10). Messages are verbal or nonverbal but most of the time they include both aspects. The verbal message relates to what is said and the nonverbal message to how it is said (Simonds & Cooper 2011). (Section 2.2.2.2 gives a more detailed explanation of the message.)

- *Channel*: The channel refers to the manner in which the message is sent. It can be face-to-face interaction, but the message can also be sent via other channels, such as the telephone, emails or letters. Face-to-face interactions are multi-channelled (Tubbs & Moss 2003:13) and at all times involve the use of a verbal as well as a nonverbal channel (Alberts *et al.* 2007:14). The sensory organs are the channels through which messages are sent (speaking, touching) and received (hearing, seeing, feeling (Tubbs & Moss 2003). Certain channels are at times more effective than others, depending on the nature of the message. A teacher will most likely choose face-to-face interaction if the quality of the learners' work has to be discussed with a parent. However, for the cancellation of a sports event, for example, a less personal channel such as a text message would be suitable. Similarly, the choice or channel used between mentor teacher and student teacher will depend on the nature of the message. For example, student teachers are required to inform the school if they are absent on a specific day - most student teachers will choose a channel such as an sms, which limits interaction.

- *Feedback*: Feedback completes the communication process on one level, but during interpersonal communication, it immediately perpetuates the communication. Feedback also aids to determine if a shared understanding has been in fact reached (Alberts *et al.* 2007). The quality of the response to feedback (which is feedback in itself) determines the effectiveness of the interaction (Prinsloo 2003:160; De Vito

1992:6). Feedback is not only crucial in IPC, but it is a non-negotiable factor in learning from the perspective of the learners as well as the student teachers. Feedback provides evidence of the relative success in learning and/or understanding a particular concept or skill (Simonds & Cooper 2011).

- *Context*: Classroom communication takes place in a specific context or environment: i.e. the classroom. This social context is created as soon as two or more people enter into a conversation (Ruesch 1987:28). In the classroom the context is between teacher and learners environment, but for the purpose of this study, the context is also between mentor teacher and student teacher, as well as between student teacher and learners. The context, on one level, is the actual physical place, for example the classroom, but on another level the interpersonal relational environment refers to the emotional landscape between the parties (Watzlawick, Beaven & Jackson 1967:22). Simonds and Cooper (2011:9) refer to the environment in the educational situation as the classroom climate. The context influences the characteristics of the process and also the classroom climate (Simonds and Cooper 2011; Civikly 1992). For example, the physical set-up (such as the place of the furniture) in the classroom can make it either a very formal space which discourages interpersonal interaction, or it can be less formal, encouraging more comfortable interaction. The relational (more emotional) nature of interpersonal communication is constituted by the level of closeness (Tubbs and Moss 2003) between teacher and learner. As mentioned previously (see Section 2.2.1), this level of closeness is necessary in order for trust to develop, specifically because trust is an important element in any educational relationship.

- *Barriers*: Barriers hinder the effectiveness of the classroom communication and can affect the messages at various stages. Tubbs and Moss (2003:13) prefer the term 'interferences' (see Figure 2.2), which refers to "anything that distorts the information transmitted to the receiver or distracts him or her from receiving it". Barriers, or interferences, could therefore eventually lead to the breakdown of interpersonal communication. An obvious barrier to effective interpersonal communication is language, because if the participants cannot speak each other's language there is very little to work with in order to create meaning. However, even the incorrect or

inappropriate choice of communication channel could create a barrier, for example sending a text message to a parent about a learners' inappropriate behaviour instead of using a different channel such as calling the parent or making an appointment to meet face to face. Nonverbal communication can also create barriers. As will be explained in Section 2.3.4.1, whereas positive nonverbal behaviours signal approachability, negative nonverbal behaviours increase the distance between people. The relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher can be impeded if either party refrains from using inviting nonverbal behaviours, such as smiling and making eye contact.

De Vito (1992:7) favours the term noise and identifies three levels of noise pollution which can affect the quality of the message. *Physical noise* which interferes with the message and affect all the senses; it could simply be classroom noise, problems with a telephone signal or even a speech defect. Noise of a *psychological* nature could hinder the successful negotiation of messages (Prinsloo & Evans 2013:6). Psychological noise includes personal issues, biases and preconceived, inflexible ideas which could cloud the message. In the case of the student teachers in this study, stress and nervousness can become a barrier to communication with their mentor teacher as well as with the learners. Lastly, ambiguous or complicated language could cause a breakdown on a semantic level. *Semantic noise* could also interfere when the parties assign alternative meanings to words than what was intended (Erasmus-Kritzinger 1999:41). This could lead to grave misunderstanding, as I experienced years ago when I gave the drama students a research task in which they had to research the history of the Greek theatre. Most groups understood that I referred to the word *theatre* from a drama perspective; however one group prepared a presentation on medical theatres from the Greek period.

2.2.2.2 Basic features of IPC

Two basic features typify IPC: firstly, it is a process of constant change, and secondly it involves the negotiation of a message.

Constant change is an inevitable part of the IPC process. Teacher and learner enter into the process of communication from the perspective of shaping each other's thoughts, actions and behaviour (Civikly 1992:10). Manta and Sivaramakrishna (2006:1) explain how all

communicative experiences that occur before a specific interaction, affect the forthcoming communication and so the process continues. In other words, there is a continuous flow in the communication process. The communication process takes place within a societal context of specific rules and patterns, which help to provide order. These rules are agreed-upon practices that develop over time to structure communication. Civikly (1992:10) notes that it is violations of these rules that make us aware of them, otherwise we are often unaware of them. These rules change as the interpersonal relationship develops. It is important to note that different cultures subscribe to different rules of engagement in IPC (Tubbs & Moss 2003). It is important to bear in mind that even though different cultures communicate differently, specific classroom communication practices develop that are unique to that specific setting with a particular teacher and a specific group of learners, similarly in the context of teaching practice with a particular mentor teacher and student teacher.

Another aspect that needs consideration is that of a communicative act. A communicative act serves two main purposes, namely to increase knowledge and reduce uncertainty. As more information is provided during the interaction, more accurate predictions can be made regarding the influence of the message. Predictions about communication are based on information provided on three levels, i.e. cultural, sociological and psychological (Tubbs & Moss 2003). These levels follow a continuum – from the general to the more specific, from impersonal to personal (Civikly 1992).

Firstly, *cultural* information is usually confined to race, gender, religion and/or outside appearances (Civikly 1992: 14). It restricts the accuracy of the level of prediction, given limited self-disclosure of cultural identity, often developed by tradition (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). Secondly, knowledge about the individual's work environment and social interest increases information on a *sociological* level. A teacher can use knowledge about learners' social engagement in order to make better predictions about, for example, their group identity and behaviour. Predictions about the behaviour of adults, such as student teachers, can be improved by knowledge about their choice of employment and other non-work related interests or hobbies. Thirdly, knowledge on the *psychological* level highlights the unique qualities of an individual and provides the most detailed information (Civikly 1992:14). More precise predictions can be made based on knowledge on this level, because it is at this level that individual identity comes to the fore and where the greatest extent of self-disclosure is

possible (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). It makes sense that mentor teachers need to acquire knowledge about student teachers in order to facilitate the communication (and consequently, the learning) process.

IPC development is a very complex and never-ending process, which is seldom linear. However, Civikly (1992) warns that the complexity of interpersonal interactions becomes evident in moments when one forgets to consider the implications of one's communicative actions. The following section describes another feature of IPC, namely the negotiation of a message.

IPC involves the *negotiation of a message*. Messages are both verbal and nonverbal. Language comprises words and phrases in order to convey the verbal message (Tubbs & Moss 2003) and is created by linking corresponding symbols and referents. A word is simply the verbal symbol for the concept of a referent it represents. For example, the word *chair* represents a piece of furniture to sit on in the classroom. However, one cannot sit on the word itself as it merely acts as a symbol to refer to the concept. The nonverbal message is carried over through the manner in which we speak and through other physical behaviours, whilst speaking (or listening). Gestures, tone of voice and eye contact send nonverbal cues concurrently with the verbal message. Nonverbal communication, which is often unintentional, can influence the intended meaning of the verbal message (Civikly 1992:10) and in doing so influence the communication process as a whole (McCroskey, Richmond, & Steward 1986). The verbal message is the content part which generally is considered before possible action or reaction. However, it is important to note that the verbal message is always framed by the nonverbal, which is often not considered. If the nonverbal message is different from the verbal, it can alter the intended meaning. If a teacher, for example, praises a learner verbally but by using a sarcastic tone, it would negate the praise in the message.

Messages can be intentional and unintentional. While communicating verbally, teachers and learners (and also mentor and student teachers) are mostly unaware of the messages they send via nonverbal communication, mainly because they do not consciously control nonverbal behaviour. The fact that much, if not most, nonverbal behaviour cannot be intentionally controlled is often pointed out by communication researchers (Thomas, Richmond & McCroskey 1994:108). McCroskey *et al.* (1986:3) use the terms *purposeful* and *accidental*

communication to describe intentional and unintentional messages. In the case of purposeful communication, parties involved are in control of the encoding of the message and take conscious decisions about what and how to communicate. Purposeful communication is usually more successful than accidental communication because accidental communication is often unintentional and might even interfere with or change the intended message (McCroskey & Richmond 1996:3). McCroskey and Richmond (1996) describe an incident where former United States Vice-President Richard Nixon visited South America. He greeted the crowd as he exited the plane with a hand signal "OK" which was intended to signify positive feelings. He clearly didn't know that the specific gesture he made meant the same as would a raised middle finger in North-America. In the South African context, for example, certain African cultures show respect to age or higher status by avoiding eye contact and sitting down when the other person is older or of a higher social status. However, in the Western culture eye contact is considered important. An African learner may therefore misunderstand a white (western) teacher who expects him/her to make eye contact. The teacher, in this instance, may also misinterpret the learners' reluctance to make eye contact as disrespectful. The same problem may occur between mentor teachers and student teachers from different cultural backgrounds.

Another aspect that needs to be considered is that the message is two-dimensional. On one level, information (content) is provided, but at the same time, on a relational level, information about the relationship between the teacher and learner and subsequently also between the mentor teacher and student teacher, is revealed (Dainton and Zelley 2004). The importance of expression in communication becomes evident when considering its influence on the relational level of the communication act/relationship (McCroskey *et al.* 1986:3). Expressive communication reveals how the communicator feels about him/herself and about the message, but also about the relationship with the listener at that specific time.

2.2.3 Competence in IPC

Competence in IPC is determined by three elements: an understanding of the process in general, the physical capability required to perform communicative tasks, and lastly a positive attitude towards the interaction. McCroskey and Richmond (1996:90) explain: "… you must develop an understanding of what you need to do, develop the physical behaviours required to do it (learn to write, articulate words, and so forth), and want to do it."

Various factors influence interpersonal communication competence. For the purpose of this study, three factors are of particular importance. The following sections will describe how the socio-communication style (SCS) of the teacher, as well as his/her level of communication apprehension (CA) and willingness-to-communicate (WTC) influence classroom communication.

2.2.3.1 Socio-communicative Style (SCS)

Socio-communicative style (SCS) refers to the perception of others about the individual's communication behaviour (Richmond & Martin 1998:134). Therefore, the SCS of the teacher/mentor teacher refers to the perceptions which learners/student teachers have about the communication style of the teacher/mentor teacher. The construct was developed by McCroskey and Richmond (1998; 1996) in an attempt to further understanding of interpersonal communication behaviour, and was based on previous research by Merrill and Reid (1981) on social style[13]. The SCS of a person refers to patterns of observable communication behaviour in the classroom (Martin 2008; Richmond & Martin 1998). It plays an important role in the instructional context because it influences the development of the interpersonal relationship between the teacher and learners, the mentor teacher and student teacher, as well as between the student teacher and learners (Valencic *et al.* 2005:1).

SCS is displayed across three dimensions, namely assertiveness, responsiveness and versatility (Martin 2008; Richmond 2002; Richmond & Martin 1998:135; Merrill & Reid 1981:43). Assertiveness and responsiveness, according to Richmond (2002:105) are the

[13] Communication and behaviour should be seen as interchangeable. All behaviour communicates in an interpersonal context (Merrill & Reid 1981).

primary variables of SCS, whilst versatility (or flexibility) indicates the ability to change style depending on the circumstances.

Assertive behaviour is generally described by characteristics such as independence, powerfulness, competitiveness and hostility (McCroskey & Richmond 1996:92). Assertive communicators are leaders who are not afraid to take a stand for what they believe in. They can easily initiate and maintain communication, but also terminate it if and when needed. They are generally observed as effective communicators with the ability to negotiate interpersonal interaction according to their needs and objectives (Richmond & Martin 1998:136; Richmond & McCroskey 1990:1). They can easily be identified because they often make use of hand gestures and they tend to speak loudly and fast. They make regular eye contact and tend to lean towards the person they are talking to (Merrill & Reid 1981).

Despite these positive behaviours, assertive behaviours could easily be interpreted as aggression (Richmond & Martin 1998). Wrench, Richmond and Gorhan (2009:188) warn that when positive strength is taken to the extreme, it inevitably turns into the negative – a weakness. The difference between assertive and aggressive behaviour is that the aggressive individual has to get his/her way, even if it affects other people negatively. Assertive communicators have the ability to 'let go'. Both behaviours are goal-driven, but where assertive people request, aggressive people demand (Richmond & Martin 1998: 136; Richmond 2002). Richmond & Martin (1998:136) mention that Communication Apprehension (CA) significantly influences an individual's level of assertiveness. It stands to reason that an individual who feels apprehensive about communicating would be less likely to make him/herself heard or defend his/her opinion.

Responsiveness, in contrast to assertiveness, refers to a more gentle behaviour, such as being helpful, understanding and empathetic. Responsive communicators are generally seen as kind, honest and friendly people who are 'other-orientated' (Richmond & McCroskey 1990:449; Thomas *et al.* 1994:109; Richmond & Martin 1998:136). Typically, they are good listeners and take others' needs and feelings into consideration. However, responsive behaviour is not submissive (Richmond & Martin 1998:137). As with the difference between assertive and aggressive behaviour, when a positive quality is taken to the extreme, it

becomes a possible weakness. Being responsive does not imply that during communication one always 'gives in', which is a sign of submissive behaviour. Whilst a responsive communicator will acknowledge the opinion of the other person, he/she will not surrender his/her rights. Submissive communicators tend to surrender to please others. Both qualities will result in short-term affection, but McCroskey and Richmond (1996) claim that responsive communicators will more successfully maintain affection, as well as achieve the desired interpersonal communication objectives. Furthermore, communication apprehension (CA) has an impact on responsive behaviour. Richmond and Martin (1998) claim that people who are anxious about communication and interaction are most likely not going to engage in responsive communicative behaviours, because such inviting behaviours generally tend to perpetuate interactions. It stands to reason that communication between mentor teachers and student teachers is fraught with the problems of maintaining a balance between assertiveness and submission.

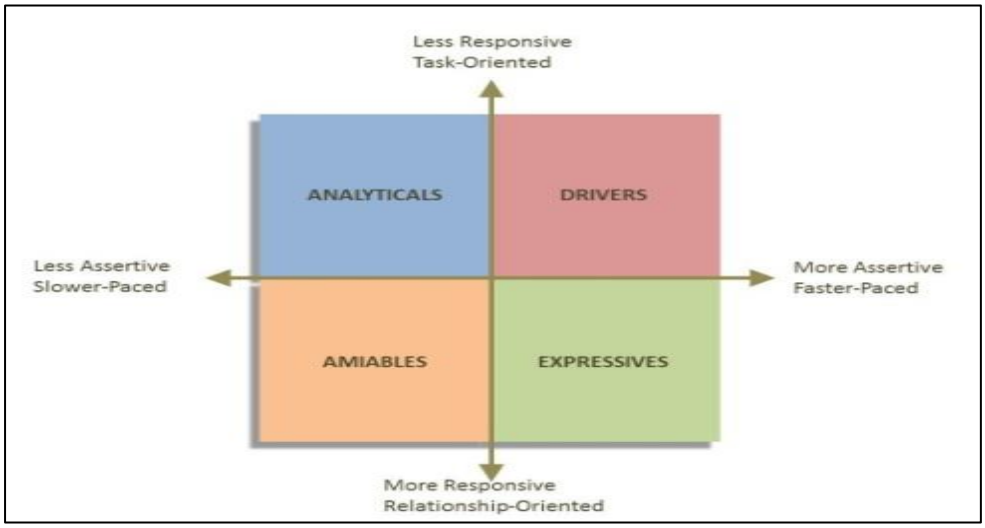
Versatility refers to an individual's level of adaptability to different situations (Richmond & Martin 1998:134). Because of the situational nature of communication acts, it is impossible to identify communicative behaviours that would suit all situations. Merrill and Reid (1981:89) warn that versatility should not be seen as the ability to get along with others. A highly versatile communicator is not necessarily liked more, but he/she is able to engage with others so that they feel better about themselves after the encounters. It is important, therefore, to adjust communication behaviours to suit different situations. Versatile communicators are described as adaptable and sensitive. They engage in flexible communication strategies and fit comfortably into the surroundings. Inflexible communicators, however, cannot adapt and subsequently limit interaction due to rigid and uncompromising behaviours (McCroskey & Richmond 1996:97). Dogmatic and unyielding communication behaviours are inflexible and do not encourage IPC. Richmond and Martin (1998:138) claim that a competent communicator is one "…who has a wide repertoire of assertive and responsive behaviours, who also has flexibility, would be able to adapt messages according to the contextual elements of the situation".

It seems logical that a significant difference should be visible between the communication habits of individuals who are low in both assertive and responsive behaviours and those who

are highly assertive and responsive. The difference will be noticeable from the quantity, as well as the quality of communication actions, because highly assertive and responsive communicators will be more willing to extend interaction, and be more able to adjust to various communication situations. The level of assertiveness and/or responsiveness that an individual presents, affects the quality of an interpersonal relationship.

Merrill and Reid (1981) identify four types of communicators based on their level of responsiveness and assertiveness, namely expressive, analytical, amiable and driving communicators, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Four communicator types



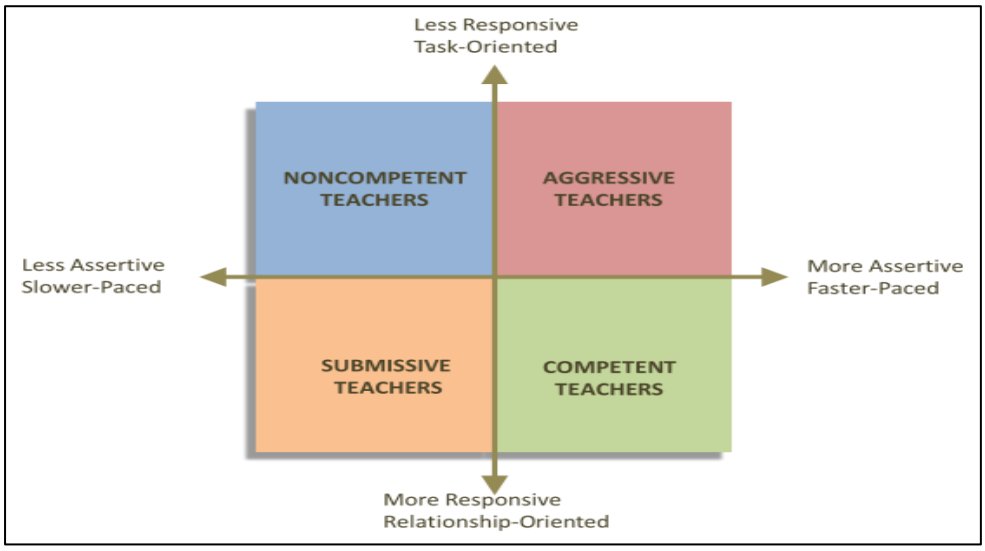
(Adapted from McCroskey 1996:95 and Wilson Learning Worldwide 2012)

Competent communicators, according to Myers and Avtgis (1997:341) display high levels of assertiveness, as well as responsiveness. This group, which can also be described as expressive (see Figure 2.3.), considers relationships as significant, but they are also very goal orientated. They often rely on intuition and instinct (Richmond & Martin 1998; Merrill & Reid 1981). Figure 2.3 further indicates that analytical communicators display low levels of both skills (Richmond & Martin 1998), which gives an indication that such communicators could be considered as incompetent communicators. Analytical communicators make decisions based on facts, rather than emotions. Often described as unenthusiastic, they prefer

proof before making a decision. Amiable communicators, on the other hand, display high levels of responsive behaviours and low levels of assertiveness. They value commitment and are hesitant to change (Richmond and Martin 1998). Lastly, individuals who are highly assertive, but who display low levels of responsiveness are categorised as aggressive communicators (Myers and Avtgis 1997:342).

However, Richmond (2002a:112) claims that these should be seen as styles of communicators and that one is not necessarily better than the others. It is also important to note that although a person might display a disposition towards one communicator style, he/she would most probably have tendencies of the other styles as well. For example, a competent expressive communicator at times can display analytical behaviours. The core of effective IPC is thus to acknowledge that people have different styles and that one needs to adjust one's own style accordingly. This requires flexibility, which is therefore an important factor in effective IPC. From an instructional perspective (see Figure 2.4) these types were renamed by, amongst others, Martin (2008); Richmond and Martin (1998); McCroskey and Richmond (1992) as competent, noncompetent, submissive, and aggressive teachers. For the purposes of this study, these teacher types are also used to refer to mentor teacher types, and to student teacher types.

Figure 2.4: Four teacher types



(Adapted from Martin 2008 & McCroskey 1995)

The relevance of teacher Socio-communicative Style (SCS) is evident in McCroskey, Valencic and Richmond's (2004:207) general model of instructional communication which describes the relationship between the teacher's temperament, communication behaviours and the learners' perceptions and learning. They suggest that a teacher's temperament is associated with the communication behaviours of the teacher and that the communication behaviours have an influence on the perceptions learners have of the teacher. In turn, these perceptions affect learning. In other words, learners read a teacher's communication behaviour and form opinions of the teacher's credibility. Inevitably, the opinion that the learner has of the teacher influences the learning that will take place. In terms of professional development, the mentor teachers' behaviour and opinion of the student teachers will influence the degree to which the student teachers are acknowledged as 'legitimate peripheral participants' and to which they feel empowered to experiment and develop their own competencies.

Competent teachers[14], according to Martin (2008), are generally in control of their classrooms and they are comfortable with learner participation because they have the ability to keep the discussion focused on the task. Teachers who are competent communicators often encourage debate because they appreciate the defence of an argument. Teachers that are incompetent communicators are generally described as uncaring and learners seldom feel encouraged by them. Submissive teachers tend to be compassionate and friendly and might struggle to control the classroom, whereas aggressive teachers are often rude and sarcastic. Submissive and aggressive teachers could be seen as opposites in that submissive teachers are viewed as soft teachers and aggressive teachers as sergeant majors.

A teacher who is a less competent communicator would thus reflect low levels of assertive and responsive behaviours. Such a teacher would be more inclined to demonstrate negative behaviours in the classroom (Wanzer & McCroskey 1998:50), also termed misbehaviours, such as being rude or sarcastic and not showing an interest in the learners. These misbehaviours interfere with learning and can cause dissatisfaction among learners, which in turn negatively affects active learning and participation (Kearny, Plax, Hays & Ivey 1991). When teachers are experienced as misbehaving, learners often regard them as less credible

[14] In the interest of succinctness, I will make use of the terms *teacher* and *learners* in this section, however, the same applies to mentor teachers and student teachers.

and less trustworthy. Credibility, according to McCroskey and Richmond (1996), refers to the believability of the source – in this case, the teacher – and is evident on two levels, namely competence and trustworthiness. Learners regard a teacher as credible when they feel that the teacher is competent and knows his/her subject. The relationship between a teacher's SCS and learners' perceptions of the teacher's credibility is an important consideration in teaching and learning. Martin, Chesebro and Mottet (1997) found that teachers who are perceived to be competent communicators (in other words, appropriately assertive as well as responsive) were perceived as the most credible by learners. It is important for learners to view the teacher as credible as this influences their motivation. Higher levels of motivation are experienced by learners who perceive their teachers as more credible (Pogue and AhYun 2006).

Moreover, Wooten and McCroskey (1996:99) established that more responsive and assertive teachers were more likely to create a positive and trusting classroom environment. They found that the teacher's level of assertiveness and responsiveness had an impact on learners' trust in the teacher. If learners perceived the teacher to be more assertive and responsive, they showed higher levels of trust, on an interpersonal level, towards the teacher. Even learners who seemed less responsive trusted a responsive teacher more. This is quite important because it shows that similarities in personalities are not necessarily responsible for strong relationships in the classroom context. Also, similarities in personalities do not increase the level of trust experienced. Wanzer and McCroskey (1998:48) investigated whether a teacher's SCS may influence learners' perceptions of the teacher's behaviours. They found that teachers who were perceived as assertive were described as less likely to exhibit classroom misbehaviours. Assertive teachers, according to Thomas *et al.* (1994:107) are competent instructional communicators and would therefore be less likely to behave inappropriately. This suggests that assertive teachers are possibly more inclined to avoid negative behaviours, such as being sarcastic, inconsiderate, and tardy or appearing lazy.

Kearney *et al.* (1991:322) identified 28 teacher misbehaviour types, including the above-mentioned, which can be reduced to three interpretable dimensions: incompetence, offensiveness and indolence.

Incompetent teachers lack basic teaching skills. They teach unclear lessons, often in a monotone voice. They do not give direct instructions and learners often feel that such teachers have unreasonable expectations of them. According to Kearney *et al.* (1991) learners are of the opinion that incompetent teachers do not care about the learners or the subject they teach. Also, they seem to show little interest in the learners and seldom allow them to participate in class discussions. *Offensive* teachers are generally rude and sarcastic and tend to humiliate learners by verbally insulting or embarrassing them. Favouritism and sexual harassment are also classified as offensive behaviours that are unreasonable and unfair. *Indolent* teachers show a general disregard for learners and studying. They are frequently late, miss lessons or let learners leave before the end of lessons. These teachers come across as unprepared and unfocussed and often deviate from the prescribed work plan. They also tend to forget to mark assignments, or hand assignments back late (Kearny, Plax & Allen 2002:129).

There exists a noticeable inverse correlation between responsiveness and misbehaviours (Wanzer & McCroskey 1998:48). More responsive teachers are more inclined to be sensitive to the nature of the relationship between teacher and learner and would therefore be less likely to misbehave. Wanzer and McCroskey's study indicated that when teachers are not assertive and/or not responsive, they are more likely to exhibit inappropriate behaviours. It is clear that teachers who 'misbehave' damage the relationship in the classroom. As indicated previously (see Section 2.2.1), the nature of this relationship is vital for teaching and learning.

Wanzer and McCroskey (1998) furthermore reveal that teacher misbehaviours function on two distinct levels, namely those of content and procedure. Teachers who behave inappropriately regarding content, generally give boring classes that may contain either irrelevant or excessive information. Inappropriate procedural behaviours include being unapproachable, late, absent from class and letting the class leave early. Another finding is that the specific type of instructor, for example student assistant or senior lecturer, was not linked to teacher misbehaviours (Wanzer and McCroskey 1998:48). This indicates that teaching assistants, for example, with less teaching experience are not more likely to misbehave. In other words, years of experience do not affect teacher behaviour. Younger inexperienced teachers do not 'misbehave' more than teachers with years of experience.

Furthermore, what is clear is that learners form clear opinions about teachers by observing their behaviours. Teachers who appear unfriendly and non-immediate are seen in a negative light and are perceived as uncaring and incompetent and learners generally do not trust them (Kearny *et al.* 2002). The same can be said for the relationship between the mentor teacher and student teacher. The quality of this relationship may influence how the student teacher learns to teach in the situated experience. It is therefore important not to choose mentor teachers solely based on their years of experience. Although the scope of this study does not permit the inclusion of the mentor teacher's interpersonal communication behaviours in the discussion, it must be noted that it is an important factor in the learning of the student teacher. This will receive more attention in Chapter 6 when recommendations are made.

In summary, it is clear that the socio-communicative style of the teacher/mentor teacher is a very important factor which mediates the relationship between them and learners/student teachers. Furthermore, socio-communication style is demonstrated through interpersonal communication behaviours, and it is therefore important to consider two factors that impact these behaviours in particular, namely communication apprehension and willingness-to-communicate. The following sections will explain these concepts and their relevance to interpersonal as well as classroom communication.

2.2.3.2 Communication Apprehension (CA)

Communication apprehension refers to "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey 1977:78). As a communication construct CA has received increasing attention from researchers over the past four decades.

Initially, CA was described as either trait-like or state-like, depending on how and when an individual experiences distress and anxiety (Wheeless & Williamson 1992). Trait-like CA refers to an individual's disposition/nature to experience consistent anxiousness in a variety of communicative experiences over time. However, state-like CA occurs in specific situations or settings that an individual encounters (Beatty, McCroskey & Heisel 1998). Ayres, Hopf, Brown and Suek (1994:1) claim that a person can feel apprehensive about communication in various settings, e.g. interpersonal, small group, and/or public settings, and that this can affect

the development of interpersonal relationships. McCroskey and Beatty (1998) acknowledge the existence of state-like CA, but argue that according to the importance of recent developments in neurobiology, the trait approach to CA must be considered when investigating the links between communication and personality.

i) Approaches to Communication Apprehension

Questions related to the cause of CA has resulted in substantial research over the last few decades. Initially, communication scholars presumed that *social learning processes* played a role in the development of CA, but that there was little evidence to support this theory because it could not be proved empirically (McCroskey, Heisel & Richmond 2001:1). However, the increase in personality research linking biology and human behaviour gave rise to issues that communication researchers could no longer ignore, such as the possible links between personality, behaviour and genetics, and this provided an additional perspective. Research by McCroskey and Beatty (1998) led to the establishment of a trait-based communication paradigm called *communibiology*. The following sections address these approaches.

- Social learning processes

The initial assumption was that communication apprehension develops during early childhood (McCroskey 1977: 5). At the time, there was no evidence that CA was a function of heredity and researchers were more concerned with the development of CA than with its origin. McCroskey (2009:166) later wrote: "Infants were thought to be blank slates and they learned everything from the environment (other people and experiences) as time went on". Obvious places of interest were the home and school environments where CA could be reinforced. McCroskey (1980:111) initially identified seven factors that could contribute in the development of a quiet child, namely: low intellectual capacity, speech skill deficiencies, voluntary social introversion, social alienation, communication anxiety, low social self-esteem and ethnic/cultural divergence in communication norms. While anxiety is, surely, one of these factors, the others can contribute to CA. At the same time, their occurrence should not automatically be interpreted as CA.

Up to this point, CA was regarded as a learned response. It would make sense, therefore, to attempt to reduce CA by 'unlearning' or 'relearning' (McCroskey 2009:166). The unsatisfactory results of the various methods used to reduce CA, amongst others systematic desensitization[15], lead to further investigation and the inevitable acknowledgement that human behaviour is influenced by two factors, namely learning and genetics. Learning, or 'unlearning' in this case, was not successful and thus researchers turned to genetics to provide possible answers.

- Communibiology

Recent developments in neurobiology[16] and psychology made it impossible for scholars of communication to disregard alternative perspectives to personality developmental. The role of genetics (biology) in human behaviour (Beatty *et al.* 1998) has been studied in numerous disciplines (including human communication). It is now believed that "while nurture certainly has some effects (via cultural influences, formal education, experience, etc.) nature has set forth in one's genetic code most of what one will become and do" (McCroskey & Beatty 2000:2). Learned human behaviour is seen as a function of external nurturing, rather than own abilities and "nurture rules" (McCroskey & Beatty 2000:1).

Based on these developments McCroskey and Beatty (1998) proposed that scholars should study human communication behaviour from the perspective of *communibiology* - a trait-based paradigm. The communibiological paradigm offers the possibility to study the interactions between human communication, temperament and neurology. According to Beatty *et al.* (1998: 214) this paradigm offers more predictive and explanatory possibilities than the more traditional social learning models.

The cornerstone of much of the current trait-based personality research is the work of Bates (1989:4) who claims that temperament "consists of biologically rooted individual differences in behavioural tendencies that are present early in life and are relatively stable across various kinds of situations and over the course of time". His definition suggests that these traits

[15] Systematic desensitization refers to a type of behaviour therapy applied to treat anxiety-related problems.
[16]Neurobiology, according to the Collins English Dictionary (2005), refers to the scientific study of anatomy, physiology, and pathology (or biochemistry) of the nervous system.

originate before birth, which implies that they exist prior to socialisation (Beatty *et al.* 1998:198). Evidence from behaviour and molecular genetics acknowledge that the personality traits are in some way affected by our biological makeup. Matthews and Gilliland (1999:619) advance the likelihood that the "Berlin wall" between social learning theories and trait-based theories might crumble. Traits, according to Eysenck (1990:244) can be explained in terms of "significant intercorrelations between different habitual behaviors." Trait theorists use trait constructs to enhance understanding of individual behaviour observed over a period of time (Cole & McCroskey 2000:106). Personality traits can be seen as a reflection of one's temperament, which simultaneously constitutes a combination of one's temperament (Paulsel & Mottet 2004:183). If human behaviour is seen as a result of specific trait dispositions, then human communication behaviour should also be shaped by trait dispositions. These developments, therefore, suggest a paradigm shift around communication development as well. The social learning model might now not be the only viable tool in understanding human communication development.

Daly and Bippus (1998:22) propose that communication and personality are "inherently intertwined" and that relationships exist between the behavioural traits and communication variables. In a study to measure whether there is enough correlation between traits and communication variables to state that "communication traits manifest temperament" McCroskey, Richmond, Heisel and Hayhurst (2004:409) found significant correlations with many oral communication traits, but not with non-oral communication traits, for example writing apprehension. This was also confirmed by McCroskey *et al.* (2001:21). Thus, research on communibiology questions the social learning theory with regards to trait development, because "(t)here is evidence to suggest that there may be a substantial degree of heritability to many traits" (Cole & McCroskey 2000:107).

Bates (1989:4) maintains "there is general agreement that temperament is manifest largely in the context of social interaction". The use of neurobiological analyses in order to investigate communicative interactions is therefore quite logical, because behaviour can best be exhibited in the presence of others. As stated by Beatty and McCroskey (1998: 45) "no theory of human interaction can be taken seriously unless it is informed by the massive body of research literature that has already established strong effects for inborn, individual differences

in neurobiological processes that underlie major dimensions of social behaviour". For the purpose of this investigation on the development of classroom communication of student teachers, one needs to ask then if this is indeed the case, whether the communication behaviours of students teachers can be changed or influenced by exposure to professional development contexts (such as teaching practice) or in courses on interpersonal communication?

ii) Behavioural responses to CA and relevance to classroom communication

No two individuals will experience CA in exactly the same manner. It is therefore problematic to predict how an individual might react based on the level of CA experienced. The only predictable reaction to CA, however, "… is an internally experienced feeling of discomfort" (McCroskey & Beatty 1986:286). Therefore, the best indication of CA is the individual's description of the experience (McCroskey & Richmond 1990:29). An increase in CA will result in an increase in the level of discomfort that the individual experiences. In general, a communication apprehensive individual can be expected to avoid communication as much as possible, because the anticipated negative reactions experienced as a result of the anxiety may exceed any anticipated gains from the actual interaction (McCroskey 1976:39). However, McCroskey and Richmond (1990:29) later described three behavioural response patterns that are usually observable: communication disruption, communication withdrawal and communication avoidance.

Communication disruption takes place when highly apprehensive individuals display speech patterns that are not fluent and use unnatural nonverbal behaviours. They might also speak too softly and use too many long pauses (McCroskey & Richmond 1996: 80). When forced to engage in interactions their hesitation may be reflected by false starts, for example starting a sentences with 'uh' or repeating what has already been said. Nonverbal signs often include fidgety behaviour which distorts the focus of what was said. Communication disruption can cause confusion in a Foundation Phase classroom because teachers who exhibit these behaviours may seem unprepared and unfocussed and FP learners need structure to remain focussed. Also, because these teachers often speak too softly they do not seem to keep the learners' attention. This may influence the effectiveness of the behaviour management of the teacher. If learners can't hear the teacher, they lose focus and this may possibly lead to

behaviour problems. According to Drinkwater and Vreken (1998) teachers who are highly apprehensive may have more difficulty in their teaching than teachers with low CA.

Communication withdrawal happens when a highly apprehensive individual chooses to abandon situations where interaction is required by not speaking at all or speaking only when spoken to. The quantity, but also the quality of their interaction will be minimal. When forced, highly apprehensive individuals speak very little and it is usually limited to short responses (McCroskey & Richmond 1990). From a nonverbal perspective, highly apprehensive individuals generally appear uninvolved. Withdrawal behaviour presents in limited eye contact and arms folded across the chest; as well as leaning or moving away from others during interactions. McCroskey and McCroskey (2002) explain that communication withdrawal results in diminished participation, so teachers who tend to withdraw from interaction may also discourage interaction in the classroom. They probably prefer minimal interaction with the learners and they tend to display limited nonverbal behaviours. For example, such teachers would move around the classroom with arms folded across the chest and would seldom lean towards a learner during interaction. These behaviours do not signal availability for communication and may therefore maintain the distance between teacher and learners. Limited nonverbal behaviours may also exhibit in the teachers' limited nonverbal vocal expressiveness and this may also influence their teaching. For example, the way in which teachers and student teachers read stories to the learners is very important in the Foundation Phase because teachers model good and expressive reading to learners. If the teacher displays limited vocal expressiveness, learners may struggle to understand what is expected from them because they have a limited example to follow.

Communication avoidance is when a person experiences severe CA and prefers to evade situations that require interaction. McCroskey and Richmond (1990:29) claim that depending on the level of CA, the individual will actually consider not taking part in an activity which demands some form of communication. A highly apprehensive teacher would, for example, possibly choose to teach a lower grade which would not be so demanding from a communication perspective (Chesebro & McCroskey 2002; Simonds & Cooper 2011). High levels of apprehension could also play a role in how an individual positions him/herself within a group of people (McCroskey & Beatty 1998). A highly apprehensive teacher, for example, may prefer to sit with his/her back to the FP learners or situate him/herself at the back of the

class. This creates the impression of a more formal environment which is also less inviting to learners. FP learners need access to the teacher and if the teacher creates these formal barriers between herself and the learners, it would limit access. A more formal environment would make it possible for the teacher to avoid constant interaction with learners. FP teachers who are highly apprehensive about communication may also possibly avoid interactions with other members of staff from other phases. In meetings and in the staffroom, they may choose to avoid colleagues who enjoy interaction, and rather prefer to stay on their own.

The following section will address willingness to communicate - another aspect that influences interpersonal communication behaviour.

2.2.3.3 Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

In its simplest form, oral communication refers to the speaking of words to convey a message. Most people can speak. However, the ability to speak does not imply the need to communicate or the ability to communicate competently. Researchers have for many decades grappled with the phenomenon that, although talk is a crucial element of interpersonal communication and relationships, individuals differ significantly in the degree to which they actually talk.

McCroskey and Richmond (1987:129) state that this "variability in talking behaviour is rooted in a personality variable that we call willingness to communicate." The existence of this personality variable offers an explanation for the regularity with which individuals exhibit WTC across situations. However, an individual's WTC with another is affected by situational constraints, which imply that it depends on the specific environment. Stated differently, a person may be more likely to initiate interaction with someone close, rather than with strangers. MacIntyre (1994:135) suggested WTC to be "an important variable underlying the interpersonal communication process" as it can be interpreted as the final step before initiating interaction. The following section will describe the development of the willingness to communication construct.

i) The development of the Willingness to Communicate construct

The concept of WTC, as it is known today, is the result of extensive research by Burgoon (1976) on unwillingness to communicate, by Mortensen, Arnston and Lustig (1977) on predispositions regarding verbal behaviour and by McCroskey and Richmond (1982) on shyness. All these regarded WTC as a trait-like predisposition (McCroskey Richmond 1987:130).

Burgoon (1976:60) drew upon research on anomie[17] and alienation, introversion, self-esteem and communication apprehension and coined the term "unwillingness to communicate." She explained this predisposition as a "chronic tendency to avoid and/or devalue oral communication." The Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UCS) could measure the "unwillingness" of an individual to communicate, but the results did not provide support for a general predisposition towards communication (McCroskey & Richmond 1987: 130). In other words, Burgoon could not identify an inherent attitude towards communication. However, one factor of this scale, 'approach-avoidance' correlated positively with a measure of communication apprehension. In fact, the two were virtually interchangeable (McCroskey 1997:78). Although the Burgoon study was inconclusive, it did in fact indicate that scholars could not deny the existence of such a predisposition.

In 1977 Mortensen, Arnston and Lustig considered the issue from the reverse side and held the position that there was a characteristic predisposition how much and how often a person speaks. They also argued that "… the more global features of speech tend to be consistent from one class of social situations to another" (Mortensen *et al.* 1977:146). Their scale of Predisposition towards Verbal Behaviour (PVB) was intended to measure an individual's disposition. Unfortunately, their scale was also not a valid operationalization[18] of general attitude to be either willing or unwilling to engage in communication (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:131). However, they did find that there was some consistency related to the amount of communication that a person takes part in.

[17] *Anomie* refers to the inability to conform to usual social standards, also described as a condition of instability because of a breakdown of standards.
[18] Operationalization is also referred to as an operational definition.

Researchers often refer to the term 'shyness' in investigations on trait-like predispositions towards communicative behaviours and focus on the internally experienced, as well as externally observable behaviours. McCroskey and Richmond (1982) focused on the observable reduced communicative behaviours, which seemed to be consistent with the notion of a predisposition towards actual communication. They defined shyness as "the tendency to be timid, reserved, and most specifically, talk less" (McCroskey & Richmond 1982:460) and developed the Verbal Activity Scale (VAS) to measure the quantity of talk that people actually engage in. As with the two previous scales, reports did not support the VAS as measure of a personality-based predisposition, but it did lend additional support for the argument that some regularity exists regarding the amount that an individual communicates (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:134).

McCroskey and Baer (1985:4) re-examined this personality-based predisposition and labelled it *Willingness to Communicate*. They claimed that such a personality orientation exists, based on the abundance of evidence that people demonstrate differential behavioural tendencies to communicate more or less across contexts. They developed a more positive WTC scale. This scale was intended to measure an individual's predisposition towards approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication, and providing a valid operational definition of WTC (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:134).

Since then significant correlations between WTC and a variety of trait-like orientations were documented (Zakahi & McCroskey 1989:98). WTC is negatively associated with communication apprehension, introversion, anomie and alienation, but positively associated with self-esteem and self-perceived communication skills. MacIntyre (1994:135) suggested that WTC functioned as a personality trait, showing stable individual differences over time and across situations.

ii) Antecedents to Willingness to Communicate

The question of why people differ in their speaking behaviour prompted further research. Over a two-decade period, numerous studies were conducted in order to identify and examine antecedents to WTC. McCroskey and Richmond (1987:138) acknowledged the following variables as antecedents: introversion, self-esteem, cultural divergence, communication skill

level and communication apprehension. They claimed that it was likely for these variables to not only add to an individual's level of WTC, but also to develop concurrently. Initially anomie and alienation were also included in the list. Anomie refers to an individual who has severely low normative standards. According to McCroskey and Richmond (1987:139) they "are normless; they have failed to internalise society's norms and value, including a value for communication". Alienation was found to be directly related to withdrawal from communication. However, later data does not support a link between anomie, alienation and WTC (MacIntyre 1994).

McCroskey and Richmond (1987:138) described *introversion* as a causal element of WTC. In psychology extroversion-introversion assumes a range between extreme extroversion and extreme introversion. The closer the individual is to the extroversion extreme, the more 'people-orientated' the individual is expected to be. Introverts are often described as shy, quiet and timid individuals who would desire to withdraw from communication. Although this may be due to fear of communication, the relationship between introversion and communication apprehension is only modest (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:138). Studies by researchers such as Carment, Miles and Cervin (1965) have, however, implied that introverts are less likely to engage in small group discussions than extroverts would be.

Self-esteem relates to an individual's evaluation of his or her own worth. A low self-esteem may hinder a person from entering into conversation because the person believes that he/she has little to offer (McCroskey & Richmond 1987) and is therefore possibly an antecedent to willingness to communicate. They found that self-esteem correlates significantly with the amount of talk - the higher the self-esteem the more often the individuals spoke. However, they also found that if the variance attributable to communication apprehension was removed, self-esteem did not account for significant variance in the number of times talked. Thus it may be that self-esteem is related to willingness to communicate, but only as a function of the relationship between self-esteem and apprehension about communication.

A group may be described as *culturally divergent* when they find themselves in a situation where their subculture puts them in a minority position compared to the other people with whom they have to communicate. It is, in the interest of effective communication, often

necessary for the minority or divergent group to adapt to the larger group's communication norms (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:140). Culturally divergent individuals may exhibit similar communication skills to those individuals with low communication skills, because they may feel less competent in their second language. Therefore, they may be less willing to communicate because they either do not understand the culture or they have limited language abilities. The difference between the culturally divergent and the skill-deficient person, is that the former may have excellent communication skills in his/her own cultural environment and language, but not necessarily in another.

Research on reticence contributes to the belief that a lack of *self-perceived communication skills* is a key factor in unwillingness to communicate. Such individuals are reserved, say little and often avoid social interaction. Initially research focused on reticent behaviour as a function of communication anxiety, similar to communication apprehension (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:141). However, McCroskey and Richmond (1987) explain that later research focussed on deficient communication skills as a cause of reticence and that case studies on communication skills training showed that as an individual's skill improved, their willingness to communicate improved. This supports the suggestion that "…for some people, willingness to communicate in some context and/or with some receivers is reduced as a function of not knowing how to communicate" (McCroskey & Richmond 1987:141). However, the perception of one's own skill level may be more significant than the actual skill level. People with low self-esteem may perceive their skills as deficient – even if their skills in reality are quite satisfactory – and be reticent as a result.

MacIntyre (1994:137) investigated the causal relations between the WTC and six personality-based variables in an attempt to refine the construct. Several studies (such as McCroskey & Richmond 1987; McCroskey & Richmond 1990) suggest that WTC could be influenced by such variables, but have not yet shown the extent or structure of the relations. MacIntyre's model culminated in WTC as the final step prior to actual overt behaviour and proposed that two factors influenced WTC: communication apprehension and perceived competence. "It would appear that people are willing to communicate to the extent that they are not apprehensive about it and perceive themselves to be capable (competent) of effective communication" (MacIntyre 1994:138).

McCroskey and Richmond (1989) suggest that a reduction in the level of WTC could have a negative impact on the effectiveness of a person's communication behaviour. MacIntyre (1994:139) does not support this finding; he supports the notion that WTC affects the individual's ability to initiate communication. He further mentions that WTC may affect the quality of communication, but it is not the direct cause of incompetent communication. In later research McCroskey (1997:82) refined these variables and claimed that introversion, communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence had the highest correlation with the WTC scale. Their study indicated a significant relationship between WTC and introversion and extraversion. This contributed to the belief that WTC is most probably a stable trait (McCroskey 1997:82).

From the perspective of this study, which investigates the classroom communication of student teachers, the concept of willingness to communicate is quite important. Student teachers are placed in classrooms, in other words in socially situated learning experiences, for 32 weeks over the course of the degree programme. If they exhibit low levels of WTC this may have serious implications for the development of their relationship with the mentor teachers. If they do not willingly interact with the mentor teachers, the mentor teachers may form impressions of them based on incorrect information which is provided by the student teacher's lack of WTC. Student teachers who are, in general, not willing to communicate may therefore take longer to form relationships with the mentor teachers. Considering the length of the teaching practice session each year (two sessions of four weeks); time is limited and therefore the lack of WTC on the part of the student teacher may influence his/her learning from the mentor teacher.

2.3 INSTRUCTIONAL COMMUNICATION

2.3.1 Describing instructional communication (IC) competence

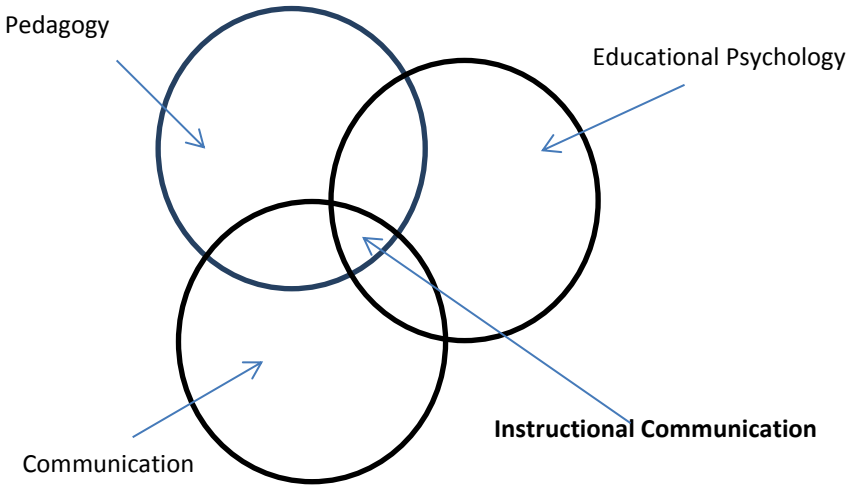
Instructional communication research draws from three disciplines, namely general communication studies, educational psychology and pedagogy (Myers 2010:149; Mottet & Beebe 2006:7) and focuses on the teacher[19], the learner and their respective roles in the meaning-making process. Since the 1970s research on instructional communication (or communication in instruction) and communication education has made a significant contribution to the body of research on teaching and learning. McCroskey and Andersen (1976:73) claim that communication between teacher and learner is essential for optimal learning, because it is through the communicative process that meaning is created from information. They highlight the responsibility of the teacher in this process and claim that "teachers who fail in this communication fail in their responsibility to educate students" (McCroskey and Andersen 1976:73).

The increasing interest in instructional communication, as well as new knowledge of what constitutes interpersonal communication competence (IPC), has stimulated interest in research on instructional communication competence (ICC). ICC, according to Cornett-DeVito and Worley (2005:315), refers to the teacher's "motivation, knowledge and skill to select, enact and evaluate effective and appropriate, verbal and nonverbal, interpersonal and instructional messages filtered by students-learners' perceptions, resulting in cognitive, affective and behavioral student-learner development and reciprocal feedback". Researchers such as Andersen, Burgoon, Hurt, Richmond, Daly and McCroskey, amongst others, are interested in the specific characteristics that are required to achieve instructional communication competence (McCroskey & McCroskey 2006). Richmond (2002:104) claims that it is important for teachers to be interpersonally, as well as instructionally competent. She argues that interpersonal communication competence alone is insufficient for effective teaching and learning. Teachers need to be able to negotiate meaning-making and understanding rather than just presenting knowledge. They also need to build relationships with their learners because a good rapport between learner and teacher is essential if the

[19] For the purposes of this study, the term 'teacher' in this section refers to the teacher in general, as well as the student teacher.

teacher wants to influence the learner and stimulate learning. Mottet and Beebe (2006:17) position instructional communication, as mentioned previously, at the intersection between the disciplines of educational psychology, pedagogy and general communication as illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Positioning of Instructional Communication



Source: Mottet and Beebe (2006:17)

This positioning implies that a teacher who is competent in instructional communication uses skills that originate from the above-mentioned disciplines. According to McCroskey *et al.* (2002) researchers interested in the instructional side of teaching are indicating that learning is directly influenced by what teachers say and how they say it. Richmond, Lane and McCroskey (2006:169) distinguish between the purpose of verbal and nonverbal communication in the classroom and claim that the main function of the teacher's verbal behaviour is to provide content in support of cognitive learning. On the other hand, a teachers' nonverbal behaviour serves to create an inviting learning environment by increasing learners' affect or liking for the subject and teacher, as well as to stimulate learners' motivation for learning. It is important to consider the fact that instructional communication is a process which is steered by both teacher and learners. Mottet and Beebe (2006:5) describe how both teacher and learners stimulate each other's minds in order to create understanding by using verbal as well as nonverbal communication.

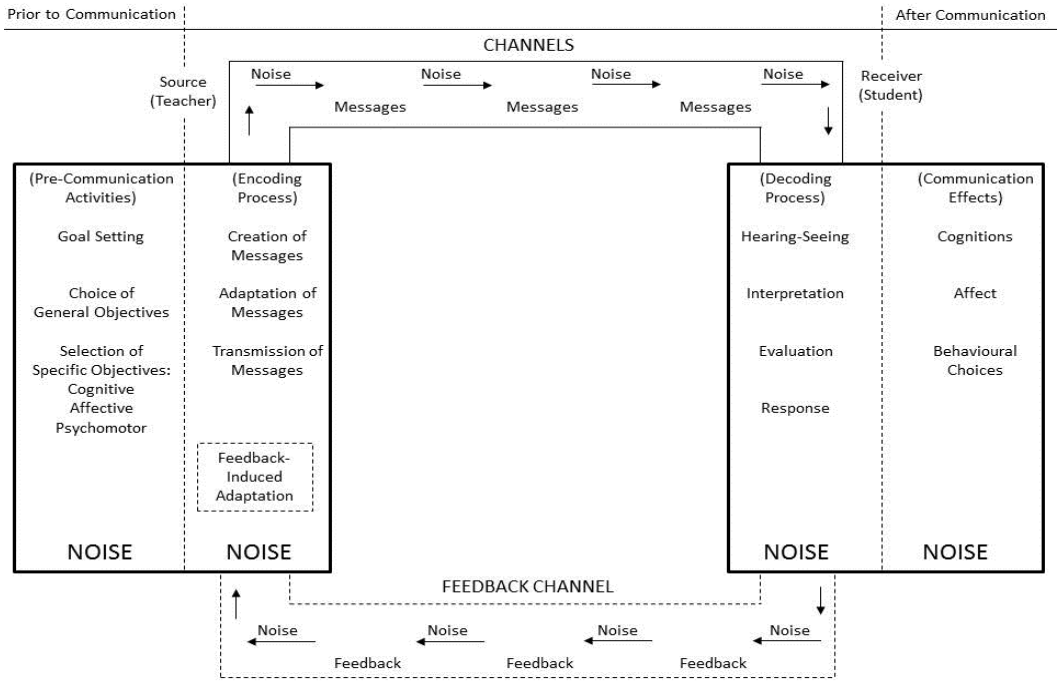
McCroskey *et al.* (2004:199) posit learning as the main outcome of effective instructional communication. Learning occurs in three domains, i.e. the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain (Wrench *et al.* 2009; Hurt *et al.* 1978; Bloom 1956). Cognitive learning refers to knowledge gained whereas affective learning relates to how learners feel about the subject and teacher. Psychomotor learning focusses on the learners' ability to perform specific tasks and behaviours (Wrench *et al.* 2009:7).

One of the foci of this study is on the teacher's and/or student teacher's role in the instructional communication process and on the cognitive and affective domains. The cognitive domain relates to the content element in teaching, while the affective domain refers to the relational element. Teaching, and by implication instructional communication, entails two primary elements, namely content delivery and relationship. The following section will present a model of instructional communication, which differs in some instances from the transactional model presented in Section 2.2.2. In this model, the position of the student teacher will be emphasized.

2.3.2 Instructional communication model

Whilst acknowledging the existence and the importance of the transactional interpersonal model of communication in the classroom, McCroskey *et al.* (2006) claim that another model of communication co-exists in the classroom, namely the instructional communication model (IC). The elements or components involved in this model are the same as in the interpersonal communication (IPC) model, however there are differences in the manner in which they operate and interact. This section relies heavily on McCroskey *et al.* (2006), because their model is particularly suited to this study, but also because both McCroskey and Richmond are considered to be the leading authorities on the topic (see Section 2.2.1; Footnote 7). Figure 2.6 provides a visual representation of the instructional model of communication.

Figure 2.6 The Instructional Communication Model



Source: McCroskey *et al.* (2006:5)

The following paragraphs explain the various components of the model and their position in relation to each other, as suggested by McCroskey *et al.* (2006).

- *Source*

Similar to the IPC model, the source refers to the person who creates the message; however, in IC this is usually the teacher or student teacher; whereas in IPC both parties are simultaneously involved in the process. Learners naturally also create messages, but the primary source in the classroom is the teacher. From Figure 2.6 it is clear that there are certain pre-communication activities which the teacher or student teacher has to perform before she can commence the process of IC, i.e. of teaching. Pre-communication activities, such as the setting of the primary goal, choosing general objectives and then deciding on specific cognitive, affective or psychomotor[20] objectives, support effective teaching and learning.

[20]*Cognitive* objectives relate to knowledge, content and understanding; *affective* objectives relate to feelings, attitudes and interests, and *psychomotor* relate to active participation and doing (Wrench *et al.* 2009).

- *Encoding*

Encoding in IC refers to the preparation of the message which means that the teacher creates, adapts and finally transmits the message (see Figure 2.6). The adaptation of the message to suit the needs and context of the learners is, according to McCroskey *et al.* (2006) a critical aspect of the IC process, because it helps to make content more relevant for learners, which will improve their understanding of the subject matter.

- *Messages*

Messages that are communicated verbally and nonverbally, promote the meaning-making process in people's minds. In other words, through verbal and nonverbal messages the teacher stimulates thinking, which results in deeper learning.

- *Channels*

The channel carries the message from the source (teacher) to the receivers (learners). There are various channels to choose from in the classroom: the words of the teacher, or the reading material provided, or the education resource chosen to support the teaching. Any of these can carry the message.

- *Receivers*

The receivers, in this case referring to the learners, are the intended recipients of the message. Once again, here is a distinct difference between IPC and IC. Although the teacher also receives messages from the learners, in the IC model the learners should be seen as the primary receivers.

- *Decoding*

There are four important elements in the process of decoding (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). The learner must firstly either *hear* or/and *see* the message. Hearing and seeing the verbal and nonverbal behaviours of the teacher enhance learning and the teacher therefore has to ensure that learners pay attention to her. Thereafter, they have to *interpret* the message by deciding

if they understood the message in the way in which the teacher intended it to be understood. It is at this stage that misunderstanding often steps in. It is not possible to assess whether learners consciously question whether or not they have understood the message correctly. The interpretation of the message is usually followed by an *evaluation* of the message. It is during this stage that learners decide whether the message was relevant to them. Before an important exam the teacher may, for example, stress the importance of putting extra time into preparation for the examination. The teacher is trying to encourage and motivate, but the same message may be of no value to a learner who rather chooses to relax before the exam, while at the same time the message may add extra stress to a conscientious learner who is already prepared for the exam.

The final step in the decoding process is the *response* of the learners to the message. Often responses are observable in the nonverbal and/or verbal behaviours of learners. However, responses can also be covert and therefore not be observable. Naturally, responses can be contradictory, for example, learners can say that they have enjoyed the lesson (i.e. stating so verbally), when in fact they have not.

Figure 2.6 indicates that there are certain after-communication effects that indicate whether or not the interaction has been successful and the messages have been understood correctly. These correspond with the specific objectives which the teacher as the source initially set out to achieve. In other words, if the learning objective was of a cognitive nature, the after-communication effect should mean that learners have learnt something. Alternatively, if the initial intention was of an affective nature, learners should have new perspectives and feelings regarding the topic after the lesson.

The process of IC is affected by two important components, namely feedback and noise (see Figure 2.6). *Feedback* is important because it is an observable reaction of the learners to the message sent by the teacher. From the feedback the teacher can establish whether the communication was successful, in other words, if the message was understood correctly. There is a distinct difference between feedback in IC and feedback in IPC. In IPC the feedback is on-going because both parties are simultaneously sending and receiving. In IPC feedback related to the instructional message is often delayed, as is illustrated by the broken

line in Figure 2.6. The feedback can take place during the interaction, but it is not necessarily the case. Often, at tertiary level for example, students will only give feedback in the form of an assignment or examination. Feedback from the learners is a crucial aspect of IC because without it the teacher will not be able to ascertain whether the IC process was successful or not.

From Figure 2.6 is it clear that *noise* is a real hindrance to the process of IC because it affects the teacher as the source, the learners as the receivers and it can also influence the channels in the process. Noise in the IC process, according to McCroskey *et al.* (2006:8) "is any element that interferes with the generation of the intended meaning in the mind of the receiver". Noise in the channel is literally more noticeable and therefore possibly easier to manage or to avoid than noise related to the source or the receiver. There are various elements in the classroom environment that can possibly contribute to channel noise, for example learners talking to each other whilst the teacher is explaining a task, or sounds from surrounding classrooms or nearby traffic, because classrooms are seldom soundproof. The classroom temperature can be either too hot or too cold and this can also influence the quality of IC. Additionally, the physical layout of the classroom or the information displayed on the board can interfere with IC. For example, inappropriate seating arrangements can affect IC if not all learners can comfortably see the teacher and the board.

Noise related to the learners is often less obvious and more subjective. The emotional state or the attitude of the learners can negatively influence their receptiveness to the message. Additionally, possible anxiety related to certain subjects or to a specific teacher due to previous negative experiences can also create noise. McCroskey *et al.* (2006:9) argue that although the psychology of the learner as receiver "is a very noisy factor" in the IC process, it is not nearly as disruptive to the process of IC as the noise generated by the source.

Noise related to the teacher as the source and creator of the message in the IC process is obviously a huge concern because it affects the process from the beginning to the end. Noise can affect the source before and during the IC process; in other words it is evident during the pre-communication phase and/or during the encoding phase. The pre-communication activities relate to the planning that a teacher has to do before teaching a specific lesson.

Noise at this level is often due to undetailed planning or lack of attention given to context within which the learners are receiving the information. In such situations teachers could be seen to plan according to their interests and needs and not according to the needs and interests of the learners. Furthermore, an insufficient grasp of the lesson topic could also create noise because the teacher may think what he/she explains is clear, yet for the learners it may be unclear and vague (McCroskey *et al.* 2006).

Another form of noise can occur during the encoding phase if the teacher does not give enough consideration to the learners as receivers in the process. If the teacher does not understand the process of encoding, he/she may well not realise how important it is to adapt the content, for example, in order to make it relevant for the learners. This raises important issues regarding the use of substitute teachers, a practice that is becoming more prevalent in our schools. Substitute teachers may not have necessary information at hand in order to make the learning material relevant to the learners and this may influence the quality of the teaching and learning.

All of these forms of noise play a role in the relationship between mentor teacher and student teacher in the situated learning experience. Although it does not fall within the scope of this study, the way in which the mentor teacher prepares to accommodate the student teacher in the classroom may also hinder the learning on the part of the student teacher. Student teachers enter the classrooms with specific requirements set for them by the university. These may or may not be in agreement with the planning of the mentor teacher at that specific time. Such discrepancies may place additional strain on the relationship between the mentor teacher and the student teacher.

In summary, the model of instructional communication presented here is evident in every learning situation. Clarity and immediacy have over the years been identified as crucial determinants of instructional communication competence and it is important to discuss these concepts in the context of the instructional communication model. This will be done in Sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4.

2.3.3 Clarity

Over the last four decades teacher clarity has regularly resurfaced as a topic of interest to communication researchers who are interested in instructional communication (Houser & Frymier 2009; Chesebro 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey 2001; Chesebro & McCroskey 1998a; Chesebro & McCroskey 1998b; Civikly 1992b). A clear teacher, according to Kennedy, Cruickshank, Bush, and Myers (1978:7), teaches new concepts and content in a simple way, often uses relevant examples and creates chances for learners to think about and respond to the content. Furthermore, a clear teacher ensures that he/she is aware of the level of understanding in the class and will not move on to another topic before most learners have understood what was taught. A clear teacher also repeats the information often and teaches at a reasonable pace for most learners to follow. Chesebro (1999:2) defined teacher clarity "as a variable which represents the process by which an instructor is able to effectively stimulate the desired meaning of course content and processes in the minds of students through the use of appropriately-structured verbal and nonverbal messages". This definition supports previous explanations offered, amongst others, by Simonds (1997:279) as well as Chesebro and McCroskey (1998a) that a clear teacher has the ability to teach in such a manner that learners can follow and understand the content. Chesebro and McCroskey (2001:62) state that clear teachers speak fluently, remain focussed and organised and explain information effectively.

2.3.3.1 Basic dimensions of teacher clarity

It is important to note that clear teaching is a complex process and "simply is not a matter of speaking fluently or coming to class with a good outline" (Chesebro 2003:137). Clear teaching encompasses much more than merely clear speech. It deals with verbal effectiveness (Chesebro & McCroskey 2001) and is apparent in the vocal delivery of the teacher, as well as in the structure of the message and/or lesson. Over the years, two dimensions of teacher clarity have been identified in the literature, namely verbal and structural clarity.

Chesebro (2002:94) argued that verbal clarity can be found in two aspects of teacher talk, namely how s/he explains the work (as mentioned above) and how fluently the teacher speaks. Fluency is a logical aspect of clear teaching and low teacher clarity is often characterised by the use of vagueness terms and mazes. The overuse of words such as 'like',

'much', 'sometimes' and 'uh' contribute to vagueness. Mazes are formed when the speaker either stops suddenly or uses false starts, for example 'uh' and 'um'. Unnecessary and redundant words, such as 'I personally' as well as jumbled word-order also create impressions of mazes (Chesebro 1999:6).

Verbal clarity is evident in what the teacher says and how he or she says it. The Ohio studies (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006) identified various components that are essential for teaching to be described as verbally clear. Bush, Kennedy and Cruickshank (1977:9) highlighted three observable variables evident in clear teaching: taking time whilst explaining, emphasising difficult points and explaining new words. Clear teachers, therefore, have patience and make sure that learners follow their explanations. They are aware of the problem areas with which learners might battle and consider these while teaching. Moreover, clear teachers allow learners to participate in the lesson and this helps teachers to assess their understanding. Clear teachers are evidently actively involved in the teaching process, whilst assessing learners' progress throughout the lesson. Student teachers who, initially at least, have little experience of what learners may find difficult, are at a disadvantage here. They may also be anxious to finish a lesson in time and may not take enough time to explain.

Specific structural elements in a lesson encourage clarity of the lesson. According to Wrench, *et al.* (2009:176) structural clarity is evident in the teacher's ability to provide structure throughout the duration of the lesson, and it is important that the teacher organises the information so that it will be easy for learners to follow. Simonds (1997:282) argues for the use of the term *process clarity* and explains that descriptive and reason-giving explanations by the teacher are part of the process of teaching. Although the notion of structure is subjective, research on structural/process clarity generally shows how the inclusion of aspects such as advance organisers, procedural organisation, note-taking assistance and the provision of internal links support clarity in general (Chesebro 1999; Chesebro & McCroskey 2001:62; Titsworth, Novak, Hunt & Meyer 2004). Advance organizers, according to Ausubel and Fitzgerald (1962), form part of the introduction of a topic or lesson and serve to organise the learners' prior knowledge related to the topic that is to follow. They are more abstract and general than the content which follows (Ausubel 1978: 252) and they help to link prior knowledge about a topic to new knowledge and provide a context in which in which the

learning can be integrated (Chesebro 1999: 8). In other words, advance organisers help a teacher to teach from the known to the unknown.

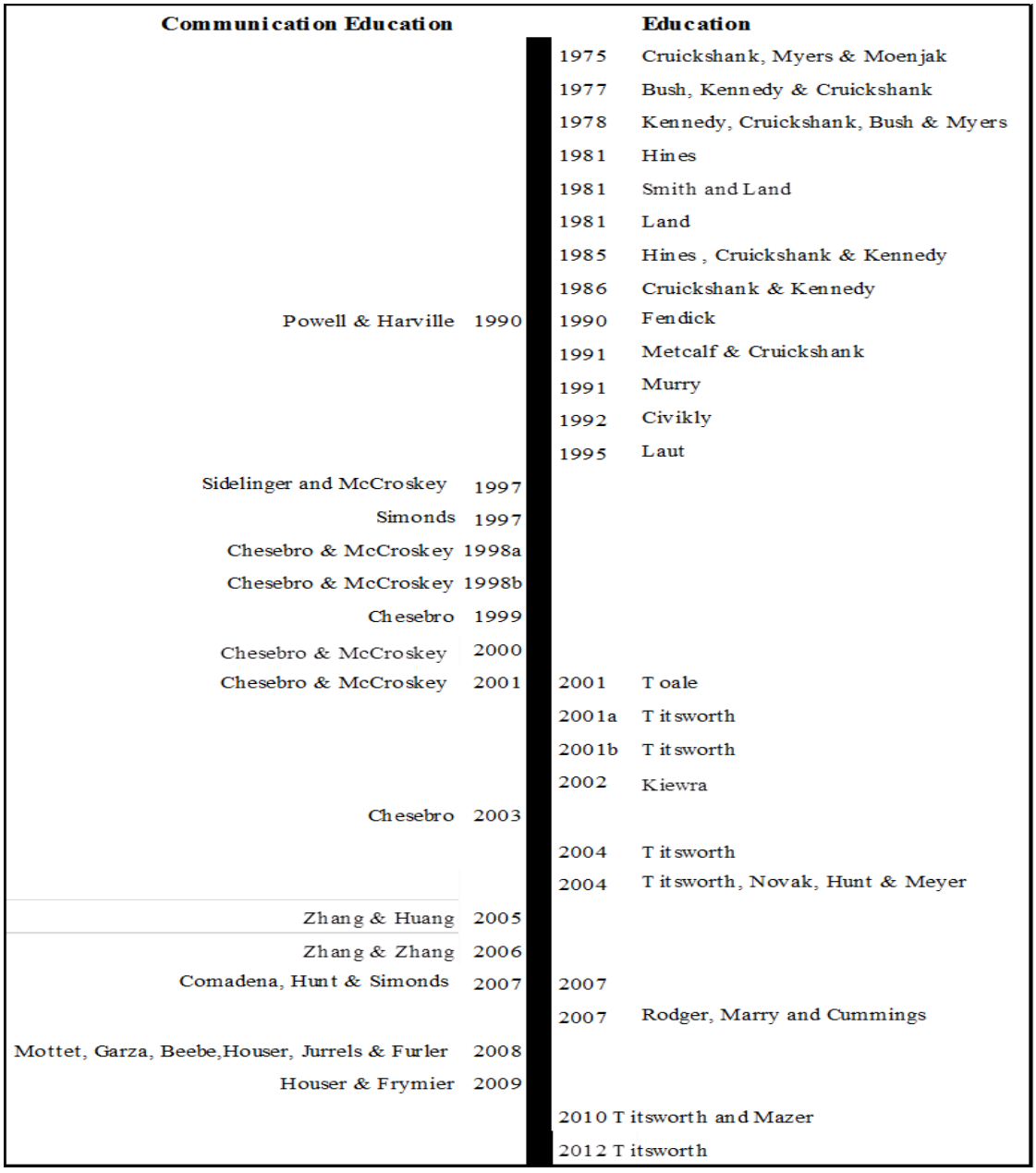
Planning lessons carefully and structuring activities to elicit learners' existing knowledge are aspects that are normally included in teacher education programmes. Student teachers are taught to provide a skeletal outline at the start of a lesson, to illustrate the organisation of the content that will be explained. Such outlines, together with lecture cues throughout the lesson, support learners' note-taking skills and can therefore lead to better learning (Kiewra 2002:72). Lecture cues, e.g. 'the following factors contribute to…', indicate the lesson's main topics and help learners to organise the information, which further supports learning. Lecture cues can also indicate transition – moving from one topic to another or from one task to another. However, skeletal outlines and note-taking skills are not of particular relevance in a FP classroom. Teaching in a 'step-by-step' manner, in other words from the known to the unknown, is much more important and helps learners to follow and may therefore affect learning positively (Chesebro 2002: 97). These elements may not necessarily be offered in a course dedicated to instructional communication, but most teacher education programmes will discuss the outline and structuring of lessons in subjects dealing with specific subject related pedagogy. Civikly (1992b) distinguishes between teacher and message clarity. Teacher clarity includes all teacher behaviours used during instruction, such as organising, pacing, practicing and repetition, demonstrating, questioning and explaining. Message clarity would be evident in the text elements of the explanations, for example signalling links, providing examples and reviewing previous content.

2.3.3.2 Overview of research on teacher clarity

Research on teacher clarity, according to Titsworth and Mazer (2010) and Chesebro and Wanzer (2006), has followed an interesting path because it has been undertaken over an extensive period of time by researchers from two disciplines, namely education and communication. Titsworth and Mazer (2010) highlight the work of specific groups, for example the Ohio studies, research by Smith and Land, as well as by Chesebro and McCroskey, and studies on lecture cues and notetaking, amongst others. Together these studies provide a detailed overview of the different research foci. In the discussion that follows, and in the interest of chronology, studies are included that were not linked to a

specific research group, but that have also addressed the links between teacher clarity and learning outcomes since the 1980s. The following section briefly reviews research on teacher clarity of the past four decades. The timeline below in Figure 2.7, compiled by the author of this study, displays research on teacher clarity over four decades, initially from the education discipline, but then later also via the discipline of communication education.

Figure 2.7 Timeline of research on teacher clarity



The Ohio studies (1975-1985) on teacher clarity were prompted by research on teacher effectiveness by Rosenshine (1971) who reviewed more than 50 process-product[21] studies on teacher effects in order to identify universal behaviours (processes) which correlated positively with learning outcomes (product). Teacher clarity was ranked amongst the top five variables and was therefore put forward as a key aspect of effective teaching. Rosenshine (1971) did, however, admit to the problems of impreciseness regarding the definition of clarity. The simplest description of clarity, "being clear and easy to understand" presents obvious problems; it is vague and cannot be easily observed or measured (Bush *et al.* 1977:3). The problem with teacher-effect research is that positive teacher behaviours tend to be abstract and cannot directly be observed. Inferences need to be made from observed behaviour, resulting in researchers calling factors such as teacher clarity, high-inference variables (Kennedy *et al.* 1978:3). These initial studies regarding teacher clarity were therefore geared towards the identification of observable, low-inference variables that could eventually be measured (Chesebro 1999).

Bush *et al.* (1977:4) proposed that these inherent problems with high-inference variable research can be overcome by empirically identifying the lower-inference observable components that can, in fact, be counted or tallied. They proposed teacher clarity as a multidimensional variable, which presents firstly in situations where the teacher explained concepts, content and instructions in a manner that the learners could follow, and secondly by the use of relevant concrete examples (Bush *et al.* 1977:9). The former can be broken down into even lower-inference constituents such as taking time whilst explaining, emphasising difficult points and explaining new words. Low-inference constituents of the second dimension are: providing examples on the board, explaining homework and allowing learners to try examples in class (Bush *et al.* 1977:10). The identification of low-inference variables was a very positive contribution to the research on teacher clarity, because these can actually be counted, whereas high-inference variables were usually rated (Cruickshank & Kennedy 1986:44). Furthermore, it required no judgement or assumptions from the observer about what was perceived (Simonds 1997:280).

[21] Process-product studies are generally interested in the effect of certain processes in the classroom on the ultimate product.

In an attempt to address certain methodological issues of the previous study, Kennedy *et al.* (1978:3) replicated the study over various geographical locations: Ohio, Tennessee and Australia. They did this with the intention to cross-validate and to build onto earlier findings. They identified two primary clarity factors, namely assessing learning and providing the opportunity to engage, as well as two secondary factors, namely using examples and review material. Although they found a weak correlation between the latter and clear teaching, this was possibly the first acknowledgement that teacher clarity might also have a structural component. Another important finding was that irrespective of the geographical setting, teachers who are perceived to be clear demonstrate similar teacher behaviours (Kennedy *et al.* 1978:8). Today this would probably be described as different cultural settings.

Between 1979 and 1985 Lyle Smith and Michael Land investigated the effect of poor clarity in the classroom (Titsworth 2012). In contrast to the Ohio Studies (1975-1985) which attempted to operationalize teacher clarity, Smith and Land (1981) experimented with isolated variables, for example vague terminology and uncertain wording, to determine their effect on learning. They identified five variables, which influenced clear teaching, namely vagueness terms, mazes, utterances, bluffing and uncertainty. Land (1981:14) also studied the effects of high, medium and low teacher clarity on learner achievement and perception. He found that the presence or absence of vague terms and mazes influenced learners' perceptions of clarity (Land 1981:16). Learners could therefore, based on the absence or presence of words, such as "like", "much", "sometimes" and "uh", accurately differentiate clear teaching from unclear teaching. The Smith and Land studies (1979-1985) complemented the Ohio studies (1975-1985). According to Titsworth and Mazer (2010), their study firstly used a different methodology which allowed them to identify closer causal relationships between variables and secondly, they highlighted the role of clear and unclear language in clear teaching, which had not been addressed by the Ohio studies.

Since the late 1980s, teacher clarity was explored from various angles in order to find answers to the question whether improved teacher clarity has an effect on learning. Researchers placed specific emphasis on the cognitive and affective domains of learning. Studies showed that generally teacher clarity is considered an important aspect in the instructional environment. For example, Hines, Cruickshank and Kennedy (1985:97) aimed

to evaluate the strength of the association between clarity behaviours and classroom outcomes and reported a significant and positive correlation between teacher clarity and learner satisfaction and achievement. Teacher clarity is consistent over different grades and/or age groups (Hines, Cruickshank & Kennedy 1985:89) which means that learners at school level as well as university students regard the same behaviours as important for clear teaching. Furthermore, Metcalf and Cruickshank (1991:107) found a positive relationship between teacher clarity and learning for learners from elementary grades through to university level. This indicates that teacher clarity should be evident in all instructional environments, from primary school to tertiary education.

Communication education researchers started to show an interest in teacher clarity from the early 1990s (Titsworth 2010). Powell and Harville (1990), for example, found a positive and significant correlation between teacher clarity and affective learning and teacher evaluation. A study by Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) deserves special mention because the survey which they used contained elements of oral and written clarity. Where previous studies focused mainly on oral aspects of clarity, they included aspects such as clarity of course guides, exam questions, assignments and subject objectives. In 1998 Chesebro and McCroskey (1998a) shortened the Sidelinger and McCroskey survey and introduced the Teacher Clarity Short Inventory (TCSI) which has since been used to investigate learners' perceptions of teacher clarity from the perspectives of both oral and written clarity (Titsworth 2010; Titsworth & Mazer 2010).

The main focus of the Chesebro and McCroskey studies was to understand how learners experience teacher clarity. They investigated teacher clarity in relation to receiver apprehension (Chesebro & McCroskey 1998; Chesebro & McCroskey 2001; Chesebro 2003), as well as affective learning (Chesebro & McCroskey 2001). Together, the Chesebro and McCroskey studies make a strong case for a focus on increased teacher clarity. They determined positive linkages between teacher clarity and various aspects that can be linked to learning, such as positive perceptions of learning and motivation (Chesebro & McCroskey 2000). They also found that learners perceive that they learn more cognitively in situations with increased levels of teacher clarity.

From a different perspective, Kiewra (2002) and Titsworth (2001) investigated ways in which to improve teacher clarity through two related strategies, namely notetaking and the use of lecture cues (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006). They were interested in the effect of clear teaching on learners' notetaking skills and ultimately on their test performance (Titsworth 2012). Kiewra (2002) explains that teachers can improve learners' notetaking abilities by using lecture cues to organise the lecture. Lecture cues are important points that teachers either write on the board, or lately, show on PowerPoint presentation. These can of course always be spoken cues, e.g. when the teacher tells the learners "these are the points we are going to focus on". Students/learners will then use these lecture cues to compile better class notes.

Furthermore, organisational cues also support learning by enhancing notetaking skills, and also possibly affect cognitive learning (Titsworth & Kiewra 2004). Titsworth (2012) mentions the following examples of such organisational cues: internal previews (e.g. "today's lesson covers three main topics"), transitions (e.g. "now that you have the orientation to teacher clarity, let's turn our focus to the impact of teacher clarity in the classroom"), signposts ("and now move on to the second topic of today's lesson") and summaries ("in conclusion, we have covered three main points today…"). Titsworth and Kiewra (2001) claim that learners take more detailed class notes when they follow the teacher's organisation of the material. Furthermore, Titsworth (2001) determined that organisational cues had an effect on test scores[22].

In general, studies on teacher clarity have been conducted from a process-product paradigm, which assumes that the teacher takes responsibility for clear teaching and that the teacher can therefore improve learning by exhibiting clearer teaching behaviours. Some researchers have questioned this view and argue that clarity is not solely the responsibility of the teacher (Titsworth & Mazer 2010). Civikly (1992) proposed a more constructivist approach to clarity which had to recognise the role of the learner in making a lesson clearer. She makes a strong case for the learner's responsibility towards achieving clarity of instruction and holds the view that clarity is a relational variable and that learners' clarification techniques, such as asking questions, play an important part in instructional clarity. Whilst this study recognises

[22] In the mid-2000s researchers started to show interest in possible linkages between teacher clarity and culture. Although not within the scope of this study, it is interesting to note that this focus seems to be driven by Zhang and his colleagues from a Chinese perspective.

the role of the learner in making teaching and learning clearer, the main focus is on the teacher's responsibility towards achieving clarity and the learner's role therefore will not be addressed.

In summary, the extensive body of literature on teacher clarity highlights the importance of clarity in the classroom. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the process of clear teaching is complex and encompasses much more than merely clear speech (Chesebro 2003:137). Clear teaching is evident in the vocal delivery of the teacher, as well as in the structure of the message and/or lesson. Increased clarity has a positive effect on the level of satisfaction learners experience during a lesson and subsequently also positively influences achievement (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006). Finally, increased clarity positively affects learners from all age groups (Metcalf & Cruickshank 1991:107) and it is for this reason that it is of particular importance in this study. Section 2.3.5 will provide more detail related to the specific knowledge claims that can be made with regard to the importance of clarity in teaching.

Immediacy is another aspect of instructional communication that enhances teaching and learning. Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997:2) argue that clear teaching behaviours are framed by the teacher's immediacy behaviours, and that immediacy behaviours are related to socio-communicative style (SCS) (see Section 2.2.3.1 above). Therefore, the following section discusses immediacy by firstly describing the basic dimensions of immediacy and secondly by providing an overview of related literature on teacher immediacy.

2.3.4 Immediacy

The term immediacy was coined and developed by Mehrabian and refers to the extent of physical or psychological closeness that is being communicated between two (or more) people (Mehrabian 1969:203). Immediacy operates within any interpersonal context where two or more individuals interact and pulls them closer together (Andersen 1985). The classroom represents the interpersonal context where immediacy should assist to establish closeness between teacher and learner. The term *immediacy*, rather than *warmth*, *intimacy*, or other terminology offering possible broader interpretations, is used to describe messages that suggest closeness because it is less subjective (Andersen, 1984). Mehrabian (1971c:1)

proposed that "people are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer". From a psychological perspective, this suggests that how one feels about people would affect one's immediacy choices. Richmond, McCroskey and Johnson (2003:505) explain that "liking causes immediacy" and thereby suggest the existence of a relationship between positive feelings and levels of immediacy. In other words, increased affection towards a specific person will most likely lead to the use of higher levels of immediacy during interactions with that person.

Communication scholars, however, have reversed this causal path and have subsequently suggested that "one's immediacy choices produce others' orientations" (Richmond & McCroskey 2000b). This suggests that the immediacy behaviour one chooses will affect how others choose to react. If a person, for example, has a closed body position (i.e. arms folded across the chest) during a conversation, it is quite possible that the other person in the conversation will notice the 'distance' and maintain it. Those two individuals will most probably not experience a sense of closeness during the conversation. Immediacy best defines effective interaction because, in essence, it joins speaker and listener (De Vito 2008:137). Immediate communicators show an interest in other people; they pay attention to other people, but they also maintain attention.

Immediacy is considered a very effective teaching behaviour. Chesebro and McCroskey (2001:61) claim that "behaviors such as appropriate eye-contact, the use of gestures, movement about the classroom, smiling, vocal variety and the use of humour are highly-effective teaching behaviors". The process of communicating warmth, affect, intimacy and understanding to one another is probably the most important function of nonverbal communication (Andersen 1985:1) and is particularly important for teachers in the Foundation Phase. The transfer of harmonious and appropriate messages is of significance in everyday interaction in a variety of contexts. Each message is coloured with affective meaning that comments on both the message and the relationship between the communicators.

Mehrabian (1971) explains that less immediate methods of interacting, such as phone calls, or more recently emails and text messages, are chosen when individuals have to interact with people they dislike, or if the content of the message is negative or even if the process of interaction is seen as negative. In other words, if a person has to interact with someone he/she does not like, he/she will choose a less immediate channel such as email, rather than to have a telephonic or face-to-face conversation. People who dislike social interaction or people who are apprehensive about communication in general, will prefer less immediate channels of communication.

Immediacy cues are based in the affective domain and influence an individual's approach or avoidance behaviours. Approach behaviours are positive and suggest 'liking' between two people, whereas avoidance behaviours indicate a 'disliking' (Daly & Kreiser 1992; Plax, Kearney, McCroskey & Richmond 1986). Various interpersonal signals can bring about feelings of psychological or physiological closeness either individually or simultaneously, and in doing so enhance sensory stimulation. Central to immediacy is the fact that the senses are interpersonally stimulated by immediacy messages that are typically multi-channelled (Mehrabian 1971:3; Plax *et al.* 1986:45). In other words, immediacy between two or more individuals is experienced through the sensory stimulation of seeing, hearing and/or feeling.

Several related interpersonal messages are sent simultaneously via immediacy behaviours (Andersen 1985:2). More immediate communicators seem to be more approachable and available to engage with others. As mentioned previously, immediacy behaviours communicate interpersonal warmth and closeness and affect the attitudes of the people involved (Plax *et al.* 1986:45). Mehrabian (1971b:114) claimed that immediacy behaviours generally contribute to positive and effective relationships. Therefore, by adding immediacy behaviours to IPC and IC it is possible to bridge the psychological as well as physical gap between parties (Allen, Witt & Wheeless 2006:21).

2.3.4.1 Basic dimensions of immediacy

Immediacy is a multidimensional construct (Mehrabian 1969) and can be communicated nonverbally as well as verbally (Mehrabian 1972). It is important to distinguish between these dimensions.

i) Nonverbal immediacy

Physical nonverbal behaviours, for example gesturing, smiling and leaning towards others when speaking, communicate an approach orientation and are referred to as immediacy cues. When used individually, or in combination, these help to bring the communicating parties closer together (Andersen 1979; Mehrabian 1971c). If there are no physical nonverbal behaviours present in an interaction, it signifies a distance between the participants. The principle of immediacy, according to Mehrabian (1971c:22) "allows us to infer feelings, not only from actual movements toward or away from people, things, even ideas, but also from observation of abbreviated movements and gestures". Abbreviated gestures include, for example, leaning towards or away from another person, assuming a closed posture/position, reaching out as if to touch, as well as making or avoiding eye-contact (Mehrabian 1971c:3).

Approachability is evident from behaviours such as smiles, long gazes, hugs and time spent together and suggests a physical or psychological closeness to other individuals. These behaviours encourage communication because the other person realises that communication is about to commence. It creates an awareness that there is an availability to engage in communication activities. Mehrabian (1968:54) claimed that body posture inevitably reveals liking and comments on the relationship between individuals.

Just as an open body position sends an invitation to come closer, a closed body position communicates avoidance by blocking stimuli and increasing distance. Uninviting behaviours, such as avoidance of eye-contact, closing an office door, or facing away from the other person, express nonverbally that the channel is closed. Interaction in this instance will be difficult, if at all possible.

For the student teachers involved in this study, nonverbal immediacy is important because their learners are young children between the age of 6 and 9. Their classroom interaction requires frequent physical contact and an openness that is supposed to create a trusting and warm classroom experience. Their communication behaviours should invite learners into the learning environment and this is therefore an important aspect.

ii) Verbal immediacy

Immediacy behaviours are included in every speech act by means of word selection and/or sentence structure (Mehrabian 1971c). There are various subtleties in speech that are part of the expression of feelings, evaluations and preferences (Mehrabian 1971c:90). These are often overlooked or neglected and could contribute to 'non-immediate' conditions.

Particular choice of words can indicate distance in place and time. Even the stylistic differences of sentences used to communicate a specific idea can be analysed to make inferences. Through choice of words, conscious or unconscious, speech reveals feelings toward the listener, the actual topic of discussion or even about the act of speaking itself (Mehrabian 1971c:90). The choice of a demonstrative pronoun can, for example, create a physical distance between the speaker and the topic. By saying "these people need financial help" the distance between speaker and topic is reduced (more immediate speech). However, if the speaker uses "those people need financial support", the demonstrative pronoun is less-immediate and indicates a greater distance. Also, the choice to use the more formal term 'support', rather than 'help' also points to greater distance.

The use of the past tense is also often used to create a temporal distance. The use of the present tense indicates certainty about the activity. For example, if the speaker says to his wife "I am drinking coffee with Megan" it is more immediate than if he were to say "I have been drinking coffee with Megan". If he chooses the latter, less-immediate version he also reveals a possible anxiety about the situation (Mehrabian 1971c:91). The order in which we choose to describe different parts of a situation could also indicate non-immediacy. Consider the use of "Mary and John", instead of "the Browns". It could also indicate that Mary is the better known or better liked of the couple. What is evident is that individuals choose to place

what they don't like at a greater distance through choices in verbal utterances (Richmond 2002b).

Witt, Wheeless and Allen, (2004) indicate that while significant relationships between verbal immediacy and various types of learning were consistently reported, some studies showed that a teacher's nonverbal behaviours might in fact override the actual verbal message (Kearney, Plax, Smith & Sorensen 1988; Witt & Wheeless 2001). This confirms previous findings by Witt (2000:117) that the frequent use of nonverbal immediacy cues seems to have a positive effect on learning and that nonverbal immediacy might, in fact, be more important than verbal immediacy. Witt found that in situations where teachers are highly nonverbal during lessons, high or low verbal immediacy cues appeared to have little effect on learning.

2.3.4.2 Overview of research on teacher immediacy

Teacher immediacy is, according to Witt, Schrodt and Turman (2010:201) "arguably the most researched variable in classroom communication research". As such, it has been the focus of numerous studies on instructional communication over the last three decades. This section will review the developments in research on teacher immediacy based on the overviews provided by Richmond *et al.* (2006), Witt *et al.* (2010), as well as Witt *et al.* (2004).

Nonverbal immediacy

Research on nonverbal immediacy focuses on nonverbal cues, which teachers utilise in order to foster a closer relationship between themselves and the learners in an instructional environment. As mentioned previously (see Section 3.3.4.1), immediacy was conceptualised by Mehrabian (1969; 1971) from an approach-avoidance perspective, arguing that people move closer to that which they like and move away from what they do not like. Communication researchers, according to Richmond *et al.* (2006) showed interest in immediacy after a seminal study by Andersen (1978/9). As part of her doctoral studies in communication, Andersen had to identify communication behaviours that relate to effective teaching, which would be evident in cognitive and affective learning. Andersen discovered that several nonverbal behaviours contributed to affective learning, but she could not establish evidence that these behaviours eventually contributed to cognitive learning (Witt *et*

al. 2010). In fact, although some early studies, such as Kelly and Gorham (1988), attempted to link nonverbal immediacy and cognitive performance, most of the initial research on teacher immediacy indicated significant associations between nonverbal immediacy and affective learning.

The nonverbal immediacy behaviours of teachers have been researched from the perspective that teachers communicate attitudes through nonverbal behaviour. Plax *et al.* (1986:52) argue that nonverbal immediacy "mediates the effect of verbal control strategies on learners' attitudes toward the learning outcomes". Furthermore, there are indications that the teacher's nonverbal immediacy is the primary influence in the learner's affect for the subject and that learners have a higher regard for more immediate teachers who use selective behaviour management strategies. Therefore, in order for learners to experience positive affect towards learning, the teacher needs to be immediate, as well as employ positive behaviour management strategies (Plax *et al.* 1986:53). Although this is an important influence for the learning of learners of all ages, it is almost more important in the Foundation Phase because it is sets the tone for learning in general in the subsequent learning.

Verbal immediacy

Verbal immediacy relates to the use of words to decrease the perceived distance between teacher and learners. As indicated previously (see Section 2.3.4.1) Mehrabian (1972) first suggested that choices and order of words can create distance or draw teacher and learners closer together. If the teacher, for example, tells the learners "*we* have to do all this work during the next week" he/she includes both teacher and learners and in doing so narrows the distance between them; if the teacher says "*you* have to do…" he/she creates a distance between him/herself and the learners. Gorham (1988) made the first attempt to measure the impact of verbal immediacy on learning and, although the reliability of this measure is criticised by some, since then various studies (e.g. Christophel 1990, Frymier 1994, Powell & Harville 1990) have used Gorham's verbal immediacy measure (Witt, Wheeless & Allen 2006). Gorham's study, according to Witt (2000), was influenced by an earlier study by Plax *et al.* (1986) on verbal control. Plax *et al.* (1986) suggested that verbal, as well as nonverbal immediacy cues contribute to classroom control. Throughout the 1990s there were studies attempting to show linkages between verbal immediacy and learning and as Witt *et al.*

(2006:152) claim "the relationship of verbal immediacy to student learning is probably positive". The problem is that verbal and nonverbal immediacy cues occur simultaneously and many studies prefer to combine them. Also, some studies indicate that verbal immediacy is in fact overridden by the teacher's nonverbal immediacy behaviours (Witt & Wheeless 2001).

Research on teacher immediacy inevitably acknowledged the relationship between teacher and learner in the classroom. In 1997 Teven and McCroskey initiated research into the nature of the relationship between teacher and learner (Richmond *et al.* 2006). They investigated linkages between teacher and learner behaviour and found that learners are affected by the behaviour patterns of teachers. Teven (2001) continued research related to the impact of the relationship between teacher and learner on classroom outcomes. He proposed that increased teacher immediacy may contribute to a more caring environment, which is beneficial for the relationship between teacher and learner. Subsequently, Teven and Hanson (2004) have shown that learners do perceive the teacher as more credible if nonverbal, as well as verbal immediacy cues are included in lessons.

The main problem with research findings on the impact of teacher immediacy on the cognitive learning of learners is the issue of measurement. Evaluation strategies that are in place to assess learning in general are not adequately related to teacher behaviour in order to establish a causal link. In an attempt to overcome the measurement issue, Kelley and Gorham (1988) designed a laboratory experiment in which learners were taught in separate groups and all content to be learned was new. Participants could therefore have no prior knowledge of the content. They created four experimental conditions in order to examine the relationship between immediacy and short-term memory. Two of these experiments portrayed high physical immediacy, one with eye-contact, and one with no eye-contact. The other two conditions portrayed low physical immediacy, one with eye-contact and the last without eye-contact. Short-term recall was best in the condition where the teacher presented high physical immediacy with eye-contact. This study showed a positive relationship between teacher immediacy and cognitive learning as the manipulation of immediacy during the teaching sessions had a considerable and significant influence on the learners' ability to recall. Due to the fact that it did not take place in a 'real' classroom, the results could not prove that

immediacy affects cognition. However, when considered in conjunction with previous studies they offer strong proof of the positive effect of immediate teaching (McCroskey & Richmond 1992: 110).

Immediacy and culture

Due to the fact that different cultures place different values on nonverbal communication it is important to consider teacher immediacy from a cultural perspective. Would teacher immediacy be as valuable in a culture that has stricter rules about interaction? Research on this topic is limited, but shows that learners, irrespective of culture, perceive that they learn more and experience higher levels of motivation in a more immediate classroom environment (Witt *et al.* 2004; McCroskey, Sallinen, Fayer, Richmond & Barraclough 1996).

The study by Powell and Harville (1990) was probably the first to investigate different cultural perceptions of teacher immediacy. McCroskey *et al.* (1996:209) studied the effect of teacher immediacy across different cultures and examined learners from four distinctly different cultures, namely American, Australian, Puerto Rican and Finnish. The American and Australian populations were similar in that both are English speaking and regarded as more immediate cultures. The Spanish-speaking Puerto Rican learners are very immediate, as opposed to the low-expressive non-immediate Finnish learners. In all four cultures, immediacy was positively related to levels of perceived learning. Although they reported a difference in the extent of the influence of immediacy on perceived learning, it is important to note that the direction of relationship is similar across cultures. The impact of immediate teaching seemed to be more pronounced in non-immediate cultures (Finnish), than in immediate cultures (Australian).

A similar study in Japan by Pribyl, Sakamoto and Keaten (2004) found that even though Japanese college lecturers are perceived to be nonverbally less immediate, in comparison to the perceptions of students from the United States, Australia, Puerto Rico and Finland, the Japanese students also experienced greater learning and higher motivation when taught by more immediate teachers. The students reported greater learning loss when taught by non-immediate teachers. It can therefore be argued that a range of appropriate nonverbal immediacy behaviours exists within/across cultures (Pribyl *et al.* 2004:82).

Motivation seems to be an important aspect of learning across cultures. In addition, in the Japanese culture there is a positive link between motivation inspired by the teacher as well as teacher immediacy; both are positively related to learning. This is in contrast to the "stereotype of the intrinsically motivated Japanese student who studies for the sake of study" (Pribyl *et al.* 2004:84). Similar to their American counterparts, Japanese students are also inclined to report higher levels of motivation when taught by teachers who seem to exhibit nonverbal immediacy behaviours more often (Pribyl *et al.* 2004:83).

Cross-cultural validity, according to Zhang, Oetzel, Gao, Wilcox and Takai (2007:228) is a serious problem for instructional communication researchers. They question whether teacher immediacy scales can be used across cultures. Their study also supported previous claims that learners of all cultures perceive higher levels of teacher immediacy positively in the classroom. Immediate teaching is, therefore, cross-culturally associated with credibility. Interestingly, Richmond *et al.* (2006) noted that an important consideration in culture-related teacher immediacy research is that many cultures do not condone teacher evaluations by learners and state that this may hinder research.

In summary, the above-mentioned studies show that teacher immediacy is a very important element in teaching and learning. It is enacted through teachers' verbal and nonverbal behaviours and impacts on affective and most probably cognitive learning. The more immediate teachers will communicate positive attitudes and orientations, while less immediate behaviours point to distancing and detachment (Plax *et al.* 1986:45)." Witt *et al.* (2010:214) claim that there is no question that teacher immediacy ultimately affects learning positively, and they encourage researchers to investigate why and how it works.

Sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4 provided an overview of the concepts *clarity* and *immediacy*, both of which were shown to be particularly important for competence in instructional communication, and were discussed in detail by providing an overview of existing research on both concepts. Section 2.3.5 below will address specific knowledge claims related to both concepts, which can be made as a result of the extensive credible research that has been done over the last couple of decades.

2.3.5 Knowledge claims related to clarity and immediacy

Clarity and immediacy influences learner involvement in the learning process on different levels (Sidelinger 2010: 96). Clarity, however, is associated with cognitive learning and subsequently with learner out-of-class involvement. In other words, the clear teaching serves to motivate learners to engage with the work after class. Immediacy is positively associated with affective learning as it influences learner-in-class involvement. This shows that learners will be more willing to take part in classroom discussions when the teacher is more immediate. It stands to reason that teachers who are clear and immediate encourage learning in and out of the classroom. Knowledge claims are claims that are the result of extensive credible research (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006). The following sub-sections will address the knowledge claims related to teacher clarity and immediacy.

2.3.5.1 Knowledge claims related to teacher clarity

Teacher clarity has been positively linked to various outcomes of instructional communication competence, such as learner achievement and satisfaction, motivation and receiver apprehension. Teacher clarity appears to be a key component in increasing instructional communication competence as it "enhances student cognitive learning, and it also increases student affect for both the instructor and the subject matter" (Sidelinger & McCroskey 1997:9). In other words, clear teaching seems to influence learner experiences in such a way that it influences his/her opinion of the teacher and/or the subject (Houser & Frymier 2009:39). This aspect plays a role in interpersonal communication as well, in this case between the mentor teacher and the student teacher. Student teachers who do not exhibit clarity may be difficult to mentor or may prevent effective interaction to support professional development.

The following knowledge claims relate to teacher clarity in the classroom:

- ✓ Improved teacher clarity positively affects learner achievement and satisfaction (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006; Chesebro 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey 1998;)
- ✓ Teacher clarity affects learners from all age groups (Metcalf & Cruickshank 1991:107).
- ✓ Learners are more attentive and learn more in situations where teachers demonstrate better clarity (Sidelinger & McCroskey 1997; Chesebro & McCroskey 1998).

- ✓ Clear teaching minimises the effect of receiver apprehension on learning (Chesebro & McCroskey 1998b). Teachers who make regular use of clarification cues such as asking questions, speaking fluently and structuring lessons sensibly, improve the learning conditions for apprehensive learners.
- ✓ Increased teacher clarity reduces test anxiety and subsequently positively influences motivation and achievement (Rodger, Murray & Cummings 2007).

2.3.5.2 Knowledge claims regarding teacher immediacy

Immediacy is a very important concept in instructional communication literature (Powell & Harville 1990:370) and possibly one of the most critical features of effective teaching (McCroskey & Richmond 1992:118). Highly immediate teachers use a range of verbal and nonverbal strategies to engage with learners. They are generally more prone to making eye contact with learners and they speak more expressively, often complemented by gestures. These teachers often use humour and examples from their own personal life to encourage learning. Nonimmediate teachers, however, refrain from making any eye contact and are often described as monotonous, boring and abstract. They seem to be uncomfortable with moving in a classroom and prefer to stand behind a podium or desk and they seldom use humour or gestures (Andersen 1986). The relationship between mentor teachers and student teachers may be affected negatively if student teachers, for example, may appear to be unwilling to engage with the mentor.

The following knowledge claims relate to teacher immediacy in the classroom:

- ✓ Increased teacher immediacy positively affects teacher and learner as well as the subject (Witt *et al.* 2004).
- ✓ Nonimmediate teachers are usually seen as teachers who misbehave, in other words teachers who exhibit "behaviors that interfere with instruction and thus, learning" (Kearny *et al.* 1991:310).
- ✓ Increased teacher immediacy positively affects the learning environment and a caring supportive learning environment plays an important role in academic success (Witt *et al.* 2010)

- ✓ Increased immediacy encourages the rapport between teacher and learner; learners believe that more immediate teachers are fond of them and this naturally contributes to a more positive classroom atmosphere (Kearny *et al.* 1988).
- ✓ Increased teacher immediacy contributes to more effective classroom management (Plax *et al.* 1986)
- ✓ Increased teacher immediacy results in better cognitive learning; learners of more immediate teachers spend more time on the subject, because of their affinity for the teacher and the subject (Richmond *et al.* 2006). Learners' affect towards the teacher and the subject is an intrinsic motivator (Chesebro 2003).

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter served to situate the study within the relevant literature related to classroom communication. As such, it considered the critical aspects of current knowledge regarding interpersonal communication, communication development and instructional communication. The chapter demonstrated the importance of specific behaviours in classroom communication for teaching and learning that leads to success. It started off with a discussion on general interpersonal communication theory together with an application to the classroom. Thereafter, it examined IPC competence with a specific focus on teacher socio-communicative style, which is influenced by the levels of communication apprehension and willingness-to-communicate a teacher experiences. Subsequently, the focus was drawn to instructional communication competence. Two variables are of particular importance, i.e. teacher clarity and teacher immediacy.

It stands to reason that student teachers need to communicate effectively with the learners as well as their mentor teachers. If they are anxious, non-verbally non-immediate and unclear, their learners will struggle to learn. More importantly, however, they will struggle to learn from their mentor teachers. Their roles as legitimate peripheral participants will be in jeopardy because of impaired communication. The following chapter will present the methodology used to investigate the development of classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers at a Western Cape university.

CHAPTER THREE:

RESEARCH DESIGN

There is nothing like looking, if you want to find something. You certainly usually find something, if you look, but it is not always quite the something you were after.

JRR Tolkien

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided the theoretical background to the study. This chapter gives an account of the process that was followed in conducting the research. Mouton (2001:55) describes the research design as the crucial blueprint of the study, which explains decisions regarding the research paradigm, research methodology, as well as data collection methods. According to Robson (2002:79) the purpose of the research design is to turn research questions into planned projects. He refers to the required elements as the purpose, specific research questions and objectives, the conceptual framework, methodology as well as sampling procedures. Creswell (2009) maintains that the worldview of the researcher as well as the specific strategy of enquiry frame the research and should therefore be included in the discussion of the research design.

The first two sections of this chapter discuss the purpose, the research question and specific objectives of the research. The remainder of the chapter describes this research project in terms of the worldview of the researcher, the mixed methodology strategy of enquiry, sampling and, finally, the specific methods that were followed to collect, reduce and analyse the data.

3.2 PURPOSE, RESEARCH QUESTION AND SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to investigate the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers over an extended period of time. Student teachers at the Western Cape university where this study was conducted received no formal[23] input on classroom communication. The assumption is that their classroom communication skills will develop during teaching practice. The aim was to see if there were any changes over a four-year period to the perceptions that student teachers have regarding their communication behaviours, and also to determine any possible changes in their instructional behaviours.

The question of whether the classroom communication behaviours of FP student teachers develop, improve or change at all; and to what extent, concerned me in particular. I realised that a once-off assessment of their perceived classroom communication competence either at the beginning or at the end of the degree programme would not suffice to help me understand change in this regard, neither would a pre and post-test design.

Change over time is a longitudinal phenomenon and utilizing a longitudinal study is therefore an appropriate approach (Wrench, Thomas-Maddox, Richmond & McCroskey 2008:221). Communication, according to McCroskey, Richmond and McCroskey (2006:120) "is a complex series of behaviors *(sic)*… heavily influenced by personality". Thus, the very personal nature of this study necessitated the use of a longitudinal panel design so that the same group of participants could be followed over the period of four years. Simonds and Cooper (2011) mention that developmental communication researchers often use longitudinal methods because they are particularly interested in how communication skills develop over time. Longitudinal studies are "geared towards describing patterns of interactive change in the sample that is followed (Koen 1999:153)." Arnau (2008:1) explains that studies that measure the same participants or participants repeatedly over a period of time can generate "a sequence of observations as a function of both treatments and time intervals" and which is particularly suited to data analysis related to the process of change. Change in this study

[23] This has since changed. As a result of this study a module was developed which now forms part of the subject Professional Practice 4.

relates to the development of classroom communication skills, which includes IPC and IC skills.

This study aims to bring to the fore the importance of classroom communication. Each student teacher enters the degree programme with a personal disposition regarding communication in general and this could potentially affect the development of classroom communication skills. The specific workplace requires a graduate who is competent in interpersonal communication, as well as in instructional communication (Section 2.3.1). The levels of nonverbal immediacy (NI), communication apprehension (CA), willingness to communicate (WTC) and self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) affect the socio-communicative style of the student teachers, and subsequently influence immediacy and clarity qualities, which are enacted by their interpersonal and instructional communication competence.

The following over-arching research question guided the study: To what extent do perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of a B Ed degree?

The following quantitative sub-questions and objectives and qualitative sub-questions structured the investigation. The quantitative objective was to investigate the effect of time on the development of the perceptions of FP student teachers regarding their communication. The research sub-question that guided this part of the study was: To what extent do FP student teachers experience change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

In order to answer this question, student teachers were surveyed annually with the following measures:

- Nonverbal-immediacy Scale – Self-report (NIS-S)
- Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)
- Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC)
- Self-perceived Communication Competence (SPCC)

The purpose of the qualitative phase of the study was to investigate the instructional communication development of FP student teachers over time. The following two qualitative sub-questions were subsequently developed:

Q1. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

Q2. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

The intention of any research project should be to add to existing knowledge related to the research field in question. Therefore, before commencing with the investigation, I had to execute a thorough review of existing literature (see Chapter 2). The graphic representation presented in Chapter 1 (Figure 1.2) focused the review of the literature, because it firstly positioned this investigation on classroom communication to include interpersonal and instructional communication, which implied that I had to review existing literature related to both areas; and secondly it identified factors that may influence development in both areas that had to be discussed.

3.3 MIXED METHODOLOGY AS A STRATEGY OF INQUIRY

This study utilised quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate the development of classroom communicative behaviour of Foundation Phase (FP) student teachers. Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) explain that mixed method designs include at least one quantitative and one qualitative method, which do not inherently subscribe to a specific paradigm. The pragmatic approach is particularly suited to mixed methods research (Denscombe 2008:273) because it does not advocate only one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell 2003:12).

Wheeldon (2010:88) suggests that pragmatism introduces an abductive approach to reasoning and states that "instead of relying on deductive reasoning and general premises to reach specific conclusions, or inductive approaches that seek general conclusions based on specific premises, pragmatism allows for a more flexible abductive approach". Abductive reasoning

takes place when researchers make valid connections between data and theory, for example when theorizing about a surprising or unexpected event (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009:89). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) and Morgan (2007:71) argue that pragmatism in fact uses three forms of inquiry, namely induction, deduction and abduction. The inductive inquirer aims to identify patterns, the deductive inquirer tests theories and the abductive inquirer focusses on finding the best explanation in order to understand a problem or phenomenon.

The pragmatist is interested in a practical problem that exists in the real world and uses a variety of lenses to investigate the problem. In this instance, the real world is the classroom where the student teacher practices as part of the process of becoming a teacher, and the problem in this study specifically relates to the development of his/her classroom communication behaviour. The concept *classroom communication* as it is used in this study is borrowed from the field of communication education and within this field it covers two distinct foci in communication education research, namely developmental research and instructional communication research (Simonds & Cooper 2011). The distinct difference in the approaches advocated in the research in these areas is what I interpret as two different lenses through which to view the process of learning to teach. As mentioned earlier, these are developmental communication and instructional communication, and these were used in order to investigate the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers. It is important to note that the specific focus of the developmental communication part of the study is to follow the perceptions of student teachers relating to their own communication behaviours. Developmental communication scholars, according to Simonds and Cooper (2011), posit that a true understanding of communication is only possible if the development thereof is followed over time through the use of longitudinal techniques.

In order to remove this subjective stance, I decided to make use of quantitative self-report measures which make it possible "to indirectly observe phenomena that cannot be easily observed" (Wrench *et al.* 2008:18). Self-reporting, according to McCroskey and McCroskey (1988:109) "has been a hallmark of communication research for decades". They argue that the most accurate way to know how someone feels about something is to ask them. Although it is true that one's perception of ability or skill is not necessarily a true reflection of actual

ability, it is a good starting point to predict possible behaviour. This affords the researcher the opportunity to remain objective because it is not the researcher's subjective opinion of the student teacher's competence that is researched. Wrench *et al.* (2008:18) maintain that "researchers must take great care that their observations are empirical, objective and controlled". Observations of communication competence and skill can easily be clouded and biased by one's own subjective opinion about whether someone is competent and skilled. The use of these quantitative measures also helped to promote validity and minimise bias because they "create knowledge by examining facts through the scientific method without distorting the findings by personal feelings, prejudices, and interpretations" (Wrench *et al.* 2008: 12).

The instructional communication part of the study investigated how student teachers in the Foundation Phase classrooms used communication in their teaching. Instructional communication research, according to Simonds and Cooper (2011:3), is "concerned with the communication skills that all teachers need, regardless of the subject they teach, to function competently in the classroom". They also describe instructional communication research as "message centred" as it "emphasises the central role of communication in the learning process" (Simonds & Cooper 2011:3). I decided to use the evaluation reports, written by external evaluators about the lesson presented by the student teacher, for the qualitative phase of the investigation because they provide the most accurate account of the lesson. Therefore, qualitative content analysis would be the best method to analyse the data. Qualitative content analysis provides rich detail in order to investigate if student teachers' use of clarity and immediacy change over four years.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010: 274) explain that social and human scientists are often not only concerned about causal effects in a study (what has happened), but also with causal mechanisms that might indicate how different aspects influence one another. This multidimensional approach is often due to the complex nature of social and humanistic science and the use of mixed methodologies is particularly useful to investigate the issue from various perspectives. Tashakkori and Creswell (2008:294) advocate the mixing of qualitative and quantitative methodologies when studying social-behavioural phenomena and state that relying solely on one method would, in fact, be "harmful to the credibility, usefulness, and effectiveness of social-behavioural research".

I used mixed methods because it allowed me to generalise on one level and to focus on specific detail on another level. Green (2008: 7) claims that social scientists in very practical fields, such as education and nursing, often mix methodologies, because they require generality and particularity, but also "patterns of recurring regularity as well as insight into variation and difference". The quantitative component of this study creates scope for plausible general statements or predictions about the development of the perceptions of student teachers regarding their communication behaviours over time. The qualitative component serves to investigate possible changes to the clarity and immediacy behaviours of student teachers by analysing the evaluation reports written by external evaluators. The convergence and possible triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods investigates possible linkages between the perceived communication behaviours of a student teacher and the clarity of her lessons, as well as her immediacy behaviours.

Thus, the reason for combining methods in this particular study was essentially to add scope and breadth to the findings, but also for possible triangulation. The different methods used supplement each other because they report, on the one hand, on different aspects of the study, but on the other hand, they relate to the two distinct fields in communication education, namely developmental communication and instructional communication.

Longitudinal case study design

The process of learning to teach and of becoming a teacher is a complicated and difficult to define process. Whilst there are many different views about the best way in which to learn to teach, it is clear that most views recognise that learning to teach is a process. There is no one way that is the only way to learn to teach, and the process is most probably constantly ongoing even after student teachers have completed their qualification. The recognition of the notion of the process of becoming a teacher also implies inherent progression. The assumption is that student teachers acquire content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge for various subjects during lectures at the university and that the teaching practice experience is the situated application where they should bring theory to practice in the process of "learning to teach".

Furthermore, from the literature review it is evident that classroom communication plays an integral role in teaching. However, as mentioned before, at the university where the study was conducted, there was no specific subject in the Foundation Phase curriculum dedicated to classroom communication at the time this study was conducted, and the assumption by faculty staff was that this development would take place during teaching practice sessions, in other words for eight weeks[24] a year over a period of four years. However, there was recognition of the fact that the development of communication is a process that takes time.

Learning to teach is a truly longitudinal phenomenon and it is thus logical to adopt a longitudinal approach to examine elements of this process. Roth (1999:100) explains that researchers interested in the practical teaching component of a programme often use longitudinal studies. Singer and Willett (1996: 267) regard it ironical that few studies on teaching are truly longitudinal.

Longitudinal studies (often called diachronic research), according to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:39) are concerned with the observation of the units of analysis over a specific timespan. The goal is to identify possible changes to the properties of the unit of analysis over time (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2009:95) and therefore the independent variable in this study is time. The aim is to investigate the effect of time on the development of the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers from a developmental communication, as well as from an instructional communication perspective. Figure 3.1 below indicates the specific data collection schedule followed.

Table 3.1 Data collection schedule

YEAR	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
LEVEL	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year
QAUNTITAVE: Whole cohort	1st wave	2nd wave	3rd wave	4th wave
QAULITATIVE: Case study	1st set	2nd set	3rd set	4th set

[24] The eight weeks compulsory teaching practice experience is divided into two sessions; the first takes place in the first semester and the second in the second semester.

Generally studies measuring change use a two-wave design to collect data at the beginning and at the end of the study (pre-test/post-test design). However, two-wave designs are problematic as there are various dimensions of change that cannot be observed. It is not possible to know when the change took place, whether it took place immediately or gradually. Singer and Willett (1996:267) posit that it is important to use a multi-wave design, which collects data at various points over an extended period, to contribute meaningfully to knowledge. Babbie (1989: 89) prefers panel studies, as opposed to trend or cohort studies, for longitudinal studies that aim to describe change, because only panel studies track the same group of participants. Willett (1989: 587) encourages the use of multi-wave data gathering for the effective measurement of change claiming that a multi-wave design is considerably more reliable.

This study, therefore, intended to follow and describe possible change over an extended period of time and consequently data were collected at various stages over a four-year period providing multi-wave data for analytical purposes. This study utilised two distinct design types with which to collect the data.

Quantitative data collection

The longitudinal quantitative data was collected from the self-report surveys that student teachers complete during the first semester annually over a period of four years (2009 -2012). The rationale for pursuing a longitudinal survey design lies in the ability to generalize for a larger population. Mouton (2001:152) indicates that surveys are appropriate tools when one needs to make more general statements about larger populations. Change in attitude towards communication can only be regarded as longitudinal. The survey design was a cost-effective method to track a larger population over a longer time.

Qualitative data collection

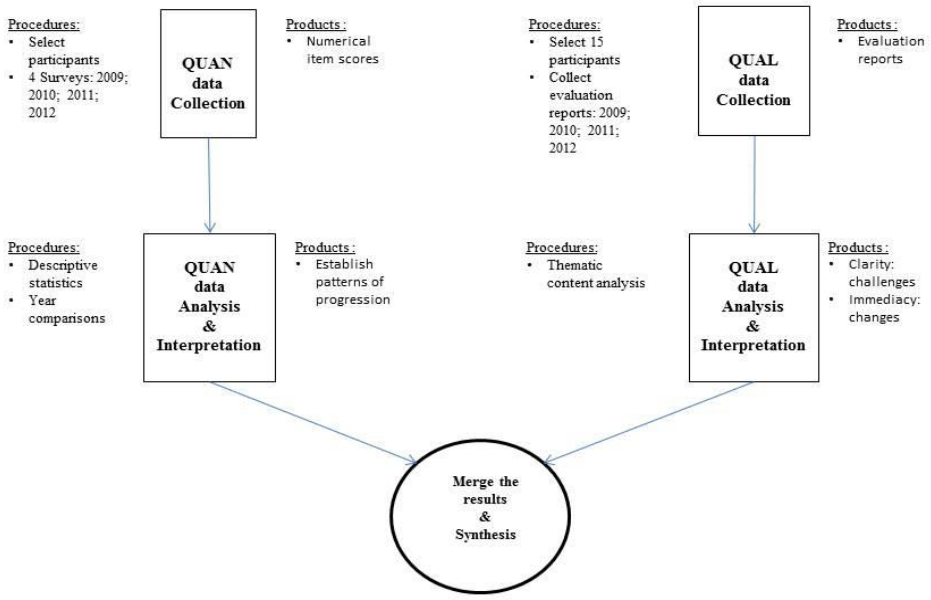
The qualitative phase of the study followed a longitudinal case study design. A case study design is particularly useful when a person, event or programme is researched in depth (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:141). Mouton (2001) indicates that case studies usually provide detailed information on a small number of cases (less than 50). Merriam (2009:40) explains that a case study usually refers to a bounded system; in this case the group of FP student teachers. As explained previously in this section, student teachers are required to complete

two teaching practice experiences every year as they progress from first year to fourth year. It was therefore important to collect data for each of the years in order to investigate development over time. Although qualitative researchers often revisit the site or re-interview the participant, there is a distinct difference with regard to a truly longitudinal design. Thomson, Plumridge and Holland (2003:185) state that "(w)hat distinguishes longitudinal qualitative research is the deliberate way in which temporality is designed into the research process making change a central focus of analytic attention". It was anticipated that thematic content analysis of the content of the participants' teaching practice evaluation reports would provide rich qualitative data because of the descriptive nature of the evaluation reports. These descriptive reports provide an account of what transpired during the observed lessons.

3.4 VISUAL REPRESENTATION AND EXPLANATION OF THE PROCEDURE

A convergent parallel design, proposed by Creswell (2011:77), was chosen as the design to follow. This means that quantitative and qualitative data was collected concurrently. However, as explained in Section 1.6 and will be discussed in 3.5.2 below, there was an initial sequential step because from the results of the first quantitative wave the sample for the qualitative case of the study was chosen. Creswell (2011) explains that this type of design allows that data sets can be analysed independently. Figure 3.1 below illustrates the various stages of the convergent parallel design as proposed by Creswell (2011), but was slightly adapted for this investigation.

Figure 3.1 The convergent parallel design and procedure



Source: Adapted from Creswell (2011:118)

Both sets of data were collected simultaneously over the four-year period as indicated as the procedure in Figure 3.1. However, in the following step I deliberately deviated from the proposed design. As explained previously in the conceptual framework for the study, see Section 1.4, the quantitative and qualitative data relate to distinctly different areas of research within the field of communication. Furthermore, in this investigation I used the two data sets to investigate two distinctly different angles of the classroom communication behaviours of the student teachers: the quantitative phase addressed issues such as Communication Apprehension (CA), Willingness to Communicate (WTC), Self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) and Nonverbal Immediacy (NI) which influence the interpersonal communication development, whereas the qualitative phase focused on clarity and immediacy which influences instructional communication development. These are inherently different foci, but they both contribute to the classroom communication development of the student teacher, which I wanted to study from both angles. I deviated from Creswell's procedure, which proposed that the data first be merged and then interpreted. I felt it was important to interpret each data set individually, because they address such distinctly

different aspects. I separated the investigation, because I first wanted to study the impact of time on both aspects, before I identified possible relationships (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003). The mixing of methodologies was thus important because this broadens the scope of the research as it gives the researcher the opportunity to study the problem from various angles (Denscombe 2008: 272; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003). Finally, results from both sets were merged and synthesised at the end.

3.5 SAMPLING AND SELECTION PROCEDURES

The participants in this study were student teachers enrolled for the B Ed degree at a Western Cape university. As the intention of the proposed study was to follow student teachers for the duration of their studies, it was necessary to target participants enrolled for the first year of the B Ed degree. The B Ed degree offers three different programmes, Foundation Phase (FP), Intermediate and Senior Phase (ISP) and Further Education and Training Phase (FET), based on the distinctions made by the Department of Education. Initial sampling was convenient because I lecture on two of these programmes, namely the Foundation Phase and the Intermediate and Senior Phase, and therefore had easier access to student teachers from these programmes. In 2009 I met with the student teachers during lectures and explained the proposed study by highlighting the focus of the study, procedural issues, as well as what I would expect from them. Table 3.2 below shows the demographical profile of the student teachers who agreed to be part of the study.

Table 3.2 Demographics of student teachers

	Total	**English Home language**	**Afrikaans Home language**	**IsiXhosa Home language**	**Female**	**Male**
Foundation Phase	69	57	5	7	69	0
Intermediate & Senior phase	67	58	6	3	43	24

The students enrolled for the Foundation Phase programme were all female[25]. The Foundation Phase programme prepares them to teach in Grades R to three. They were representative of the three language groups in the Western Cape, namely English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa, with ages ranging between 18 and 40. The Intermediate/Senior Phase programme prepares the student teachers to teach Grades 4 to 9. This programme gives them access to high school teaching, and therefore they complete some of their practical experience sessions in high schools. Student teachers enrolled for the Intermediate & Senior Phase programme were male and female and represented the three language groups in the Western Cape, namely English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa, with ages ranging between 18 and 40.

3.5.1 Sampling procedures: quantitative

In 2009, after the initial meeting with the student teachers, 136 agreed to take part in the study. As indicted in the previous section, initially the sample was convenient, however, it was also a purposive sample as the intention of the study was very specific – it was necessary to follow a group of participants throughout the duration of the B Ed degree. As mentioned previously, I lecture on the Foundation Phase and Intermediate & Senior programmes and had relatively easy access to these students. They completed the self-report instruments (surveys)[26] during the first semester of 2009.

3.5.2 Selection of cases: qualitative

From the quantitative population a sample was taken to form the unit of analysis for the qualitative case study part of the study. The selection of cases for the qualitative part of the study is therefore purposeful. Creswell (1998:62) recommends choosing cases which show different perspectives on the problem. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:279) also recommend the use of purposeful and non-probability sampling when "planning in-depth qualitative research". Since the intention from the beginning was to link quantitative measures to qualitative evaluation reports, the size of the qualitative data set required that a selection be made from the population; otherwise, the analysis of the evaluation reports

[25] One male student teacher enrolled for the degree, completed the first survey for this study and left before the middle of the year. He was therefore excluded from the sample.
[26] The following self-report instruments were used: Personal report of communication apprehension (PRCA-24), Willingness to communicate scale (WTC), Self-perceived communication competence scale (SPCC), and the Nonverbal immediacy self-report (NIS-S).

would have become extremely difficult to manage. An initial sample of 40 participants was selected, based on the results of the first wave of self-report measures.

The aim was to include participants from three different levels on the communication apprehension continuum. Participants who scored high, average and low on the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24) were selected. However, because communication apprehension (CA) is indicated (see Section 2.3.2.3) as a factor which influences the level of willingness to communicate (WTC) of a person, I decided to narrow the sample to cases where this seems to be the case, in other words, cases where high PRCA reported low WTC, where low PRCA reported high PRCA and average PRCA reported average WTC were included.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

3.6.1 Quantitative data collection

The quantitative stage of the data collection followed a longitudinal survey design which according to Creswell (2003:153) "provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitude, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population". This is exactly the purpose that it is served in this study. Babbie (1989: 237) claims that survey research is particularly suited to research which aims to describe, explain or explore a large population.

Three self-report instruments (Addenda 3.1), according to McCroskey and McCroskey (1988:109) a regular feature of communication research, were used to monitor any changes in the opinion of participants regarding their *verbal* communication skills. The three instruments used in this study are the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension-24 (PRCA-24), the Willingness-to-Communicate Scale (WTC) and the Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale (SPCC). The PRCA measure deals with communication apprehension in a variety of settings, whilst the WTC measures a participant's willingness to engage in communication. The SPCC indicates how competent a participant feels about his/her communication abilities (McCroskey, 1992:16). The reliability of these instruments,

developed by James McCroskey[27] and colleagues, has been established through extensive research (McCroskey 1970; 1977; McCroskey, Beatty, Kearny & Plax 1985; McCroskey & McCroskey 1988; Levine & McCroskey 1990; McCroskey 1992).

The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Self-Report (NIS-S) was used to follow possible changes in the perception of student teachers regarding their levels of *nonverbal* immediacy (Addendum 3.1). The instrument is suited to a variety of contexts and delivers data of high reliability and validity (Richmond *et al.* 2003: 515).

The following sub-sections will provide more detail about each instrument used to collect the quantitative data[28].

3.6.1.1. Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)

The PRCA-24 is the result of research by McCroskey spanning almost four decades (Bline, Lowe, Meixner & Nouri 2003:266). The set of 24 questions measure the total level of CA, as well as the four sub-constructs related to CA in the communication contexts of public speaking, group discussion, meetings and dyad. It is highly reliable (alpha regularly >.90) and has, according to McCroskey (1982), very high predictive validity (M = 65.5; SD = 15.3). See Addendum 3.1.

[27] They are available for research purposes and obtainable from his website (http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/measures).

[28] The format within which these instruments are presented in this section is based on the suggested format by the developers of these instruments (Wrench *et al.* 2008).

3.6.1.2 Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

The WTC scale is a 20-item, probability-estimate scale (McCroskey, 1992:17). The scale was developed to establish a participant's predisposition/inclination toward either approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication. It produces a total WTC score, three sub-scores based on types of receivers, i.e. strangers, acquaintances, friends and four additional sub-scores based on types of communication contexts, i.e. public, meeting, group and dyad. McCroskey (1992) indicates that the alpha reliability estimates for the WTC scale have ranged from .85 to well above .90. Furthermore, the WTC scale has strong content as well as predictive validity (*M* = 65.2; SD = 15.1). See Addendum 3.1.

3.6.1.3 Self-report on Perceived Communication Competence (SPCC)

The SPCC survey was used to measure the participants' self-perceived communication competence. The SPCC scale comprises of 12 items and four communication contexts (public speaking, meetings, groups and dyads) are included, as well as three types of receivers (strangers, acquaintances and friends). The alpha reliability estimates are generally good (above .85) and, according to McCroskey and McCroskey (1988), it has strong content validity, as well as substantial predictive validity (*M* = 73.7; SD = 13.8). See Addendum 3.1.

3.6.1.4 Nonverbal Immediacy Scale – Self Report (NIS-S)

Participants' level of nonverbal immediacy was measured with a self-report measure of 26 items. A 5-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (*never*) and 5 (*very often*) was used (Richmond, *et al.* 2003). See Addenda 3.1. The items relate to self-perceived use of nonverbal immediacy cues, such as eye contact, gesturing, smiling, body position in relation to others, etc. Alpha reliability estimates of about .90 can be expected (*M* = 102.0; *S.D.* = 10.9); also it has strong content and predictive value (Richmond *et al.* 2003).

3.6.2 Qualitative data collection

Teaching Practice is a compulsory component[29] in each of the four years of the B Ed programme. For each of the four years participants spend two teaching practice sessions of four weeks each in a school. They taught a predetermined number of lessons and were observed by the mentor teacher. Mentor teachers as well as external evaluators evaluated the progress of the participants and prepared evaluation reports (Addendum 3.2) that were submitted to the university. Each participant is evaluated for a maximum of four sessions per year. External evaluators are advised to comment on and evaluate general teaching competencies, such as lesson preparation, communication, structuring of learning, as well as classroom management.

Qualitative researchers often prefer to follow a case study approach in order to study an event, programme, process or one or more individuals in great detail (Creswell 2009:13). The case in this specific study is a group of participants who were purposefully identified from the results of the first wave of quantitative data (see Section 3.6.2). However, the participants themselves were not the actual focus of the investigation. Because I wanted to investigate the development of the instructional communication behaviours (specifically related to clarity and immediacy) which would be exhibited by their actual teaching practice, it was necessary to find a way in which to investigate their teaching practice during the allocated sessions in schools. I realised that the best way to get the most objective account of what actually happened during a lesson, was to analyse the evaluation reports written by the external evaluators. These reports formed the data set for the qualitative case study phase of the study.

As mentioned previously, I arranged with management to, for the duration of the study, evaluate the same group of students (my case study participants) over the period of four years. However, I felt that to rely solely on my own observations would challenge the objectivity of the study and therefore I had to include the evaluation reports by other external evaluators in the data set[30]. At this stage, the data set included a possible 1088 evaluation

[29]In the Foundation Phase programme Teaching Practice is included in the subject Professional Practice (50% of the final mark). However, in the Intermediate/Senior Phase programme Teaching Practice is a separate subject.
[30] The evaluation reports were collected from the teaching practice coordinators at the end of each year and I made copies of the relevant reports for the participants included in the qualitative sample.

reports, which clearly had to be condensed. The process of qualitative data condensation will be addressed in the following section.

3.7 DATA REDUCTION AND DATA CONDENSATION STRATEGIES

This longitudinal mixed method study generated, as expected, relatively large data sets which had to be made more manageable. Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014) suggest that quantitative data must be reduced and qualitative data condensed, because the process to make data more manageable in quantitative studies differs from qualitative studies. It was, therefore, necessary to find strategies in order to firstly reduce the quantitative data to a more manageable size and secondly, condense the qualitative data to strengthen the data set.

For the quantitative part of the study, participants were surveyed once a year over a period of four years. They completed surveys during a lecture period in the first semester of each year. As mentioned earlier, I lecture in the education faculty. However, because I am a core Foundation Phase lecturer, I had much closer contact with the participants in the Foundation Phase. I did not have such close contact with the Intermediate & Senior phase group, which meant that fewer of them completed and returned the surveys every year. Because the response rate in the FP group was much better, I decided to focus only on the participants from the Foundation Phase.

The qualitative data also had to be reduced. Theoretically, the complete data set should have consisted of 240 evaluation reports, which realistically was not practical. In addition, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:193) point out, it is better to make the qualitative sample much smaller than the quantitative sample, because this "helps the researcher obtain an in-depth qualitative exploration." Therefore, I decided to condense the data set by choosing two evaluations per participant for every year: my own evaluation report and one other from the set. Merriam (2009:150) describes the process of finding the relevant documents as the first step in the process and this systematic procedure is often driven by "the topic of enquiry itself". For this reason I decided that the level of detail related either to clarity or to immediacy would determine the choice of the second evaluation report. Most of the time a

single evaluation report provided sufficient detail regarding both concepts, however, there were instances where the evaluation report was rather cryptic and the majority of the comments, for example, related to clarity and where there were no immediacy-related comments, and *vice versa*. Table 3.3 indicates the numbers of evaluation reports included in the data set.

Table 3.3 Number of evaluation reports included in each data set

Data set	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**TOTAL**
Clarity (Q1)	27	30	30	30	117
Immediacy (Q2)	27	30	30	30	117

Unfortunately, as indicated in Table 3.3, there were participants evaluated only once in their year (or their evaluation reports were misplaced or not submitted at all), which meant that I had no access to a second evaluation report. This should be mentioned here as a possible limitation, however, in light of the fact that 98% of the data set is available for analysis, I believe that the missing three reports would have relatively little impact on the final analysis.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

3.8.1 Quantitative analysis

Comparisons of mean scores over the four years were done using mixed model repeated measures ANOVA. Repeated measures ANOVA, according to Wrench *et al.* (2008:418) allows "a researcher to determine if differences occur in a variable over time". In the analyses done for this study, year was the fixed effect, and the subjects that took part in the study the random effect. Post hoc tests were done using Fisher least significant difference testing (LSD). Relationships between measured variables were tested using Pearson correlations. Graphical summaries of correlations were done using a technique called preference mapping.

3.8.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative research requires consideration of context and particularities and is, therefore, particularly suitable for the investigation of a practice, such as teaching. Holland, Thompson and Henderson (2006:1) explain that "qualitative *longitudinal* research is predicated on the investigation and interpretation of change over time and process in social contexts". The evaluation reports, as mentioned in Section 3.6.2, offered the most objective account of what actually happened during lessons. It is for this reason that I decided to use them for the qualitative case study phase of the investigation. As the qualitative data set consisted of documents (i.e. written evaluation reports), a process of qualitative content (or document) analysis was deemed the best-suited method of analysis. Content analysis, according to Mouton (2001:166) follows inductive reasoning and is a-theoretical. He explains that the unobtrusive nature of the procedure is a particular strength because possible errors between the interaction of the researcher and the participant can be avoided. There are, according to Bowen (2009:31) several advantages to using qualitative document analysis. The following table presents Bowen's interpretation of the advantages as well as my own justifications to follow this procedure.

Table 3.4 Qualitative document analysis: advantages

Advantage Bowen (2009)	**Description**	**Rationale to follow this approach**
Efficient method	Less time-consuming Data selection instead of data collection	It was the most cost-effective manner to study participants' teaching practice, because I had no time restrictions within which to collect the reports. I copied the relevant reports and selected the most appropriate documents only prior to the analysis.
Availability	Documents - in public domain	Once I received permission from SU, the Western Cape university, as well as form the participants themselves, I had easy access to the documentation.
Cost-effectiveness	Data has already been gathered	I could use the reports free of charge. The reports were initially intended as evaluation reports which (a) student teachers use to guide their planning for future evaluation sessions and (b) provide a mark which the university includes in the calculation of student teachers' final marks for teaching practice every year.
Lack of obtrusiveness and reactivity	Documents - not affected by the research process	In order to minimise possible bias evaluators were not informed that the reports could be used in research (only consenting participants were informed). Thus their writing was not influenced by its inclusion in the study.
Stability	Documents - stable; researchers presence does not affect what is being studied	Teaching practice is very subjective because of all the personal dimensions involved. By using the documents, rather than interviews, I hope to enhance the objectivity of the analysis.
Exactness	Accuracy; details of events	The use of experienced evaluators ensured that the evaluation reports were the most accurate documentation of what actually transpired during the lesson.

Coverage	Documents cover broad scope, many events, settings; long time span	The use of the evaluation reports allowed me to follow the development of the participants over time.

As with any other method of data collections, there are certain disadvantages when using document analyses. However, Bowen (2009) posits that these should rather be seen as potential weaknesses and not disadvantages. Table 3.5 presents Bowen's description of the potential weaknesses, as well as an indication of how I addressed the issues in the study.

Table 3.5 Qualitative document analysis: weaknesses

Weakness according to Bowen (2009)	**Description**	**Ways of managing the weakness**
Insufficient detail	Documents - created for purposes other than research	To address this weakness I used multiple evaluation reports – for each participant at least two evaluation reports per year were included in the data set. The fact that the documents were not specifically created for the research, which is often seen as a weakness, is in this case a strength because it meant that the evaluators were not prompted to write what I needed for the research which would add an element of bias. The evaluation reports can therefore be treated as the most objective version of the observed lesson.
Low retrievability	Access to documents - difficult, documents not always available	Most of the documentation was readily available. However, there were some instances where participants were not evaluated four times a year (due to personal problems or sickness), which meant that only one report was available for analysis. This was cited as a possible limitation to the study.
Biased selectivity	Incomplete collections of documents might affect the selection	See previous comments

It is important to bear in mind that qualitative data analysis is a lengthy and iterative process. It is therefore crucial that the process is clearly documented, because it is in this process of the "analytical craftsmanship" that qualitative researchers show their ability to retrieve understanding, which emerge from the data (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit 2004:101). Merriam (2009:139) refers to the process as "mining data from documents", which reiterates that the process is not linear and complex, and that it has to be documented in detail. In accordance, I will explain the processes, which I followed in great depth in Section 5.2. Creswell (2009) posits that the aim of qualitative data analysis is to make meaning from text. I followed his procedure by starting broadly, reviewing the complete data set, and then through a process of cyclical analysis developed an in-depth understanding of the data.

3.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS

The description of the trustworthiness of an investigation is in a sense a form of quality control. It provides evidence that the investigation was done in such a manner that the results can be trusted and subsequently adds to the existing body of knowledge. The inherent differences in quantitative and qualitative investigations require that these differences be recognised in the discussion related to trustworthiness.

3.9.1 Quantitative trustworthiness

Reliability in a quantitative investigation, according to Wrench *et al.* (2008:188), refers to "the accuracy that a measure has in producing stable, consistent measurements". The Cronbach Alpha reliability test is commonly used to determine the reliability of survey measures used in this investigation. The validity of a measure is "the degree to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure" (Wrench *et al.* 2008:202). Section 3.6.1 described the various surveys used, noting their alpha reliability, and content as well as predictive validity. As part of the quantitative analysis and interpretation Section 4.3 will present the reliability as calculated for this specific study.

3.9.2 Qualitative trustworthiness

Qualitative researchers place a stronger emphasis on the validity than on the reliability of the investigation when addressing issues related to trustworthiness (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011:211). According to Creswell (2009:124) there are various strategies that researchers can use to validate their findings, one of which is particularly relevant for this study, namely spending prolonged time in the field. The longitudinal nature of this study enabled me to get an in-depth understanding of the development of the clarity and immediacy behaviours of FP student teachers. The qualitative phase of this investigation involved a small group of FP student teachers over a period of four years.

Additionally, Creswell (2009:192) claims that it is important that the researcher clarify the possible bias he/she brings to the study. I have explained that I included my evaluation reports in the data sets. However, Merriam (2009:149) describes various types of documents which can be used in qualitative research, however the "researcher-generated" documents are of relevance here, because she explains that these are documents developed by the researcher "after the study has begun". Furthermore, I explained in Section 1.9, that I diverged from traditional approaches to qualitative analysis that propose that data collection and analysis often take place simultaneously, in order to stay more objective. I deliberately only started analysing the evaluation reports after the four-year period of collection. Although this sub-section is dedicated to qualitative validity, it is important to note here that the quantitative analysis of the various waves of data collection also took place once all data had been collected.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

During my initial meeting with the student teachers in 2009, I explained that participation in the study was voluntary and all student teachers would sign consent forms (Addendum 3.3) to indicate their willingness to participate in the study. Furthermore, it was made clear to them that the study would not affect their evaluations in any way and that they could withdraw from the study at any time if they wish to do so.

Ethical clearance was obtained from multiple stakeholders. Firstly, I had to get permission from the university to conduct the research on student teachers (Addendum 3.4). Secondly, I had to get ethical clearance from the University of Stellenbosch in order to conduct the study (Addendum 3.5). I also contacted the Western Cape Education Department regarding ethical clearance, but I was informed that in this case ethical clearance and permission were not required, because I was not researching learners or teachers in schools.

3.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the design of the research process for this study in detail. This study is framed by the pragmatic paradigm, because it places particular importance on the research problem and the purpose of the research, i.e. to contribute to existing knowledge regarding teacher education. The pragmatic approach also allows for the use of mixed methodologies to study the classroom communication behaviour and development of student teachers, because the pragmatist is interested in socially situated problems. The use of mixed methodologies is also particularly useful for this study, because it allowed the use of different methods of investigation of two specific fields within the discipline of communication education, namely developmental communication and instructional communication. Furthermore, the chapter argued that interpersonal and instructional communication development are longitudinal processes and that it would therefore make sense to investigate these over an extended period of time.

Furthermore, the chapter explained the procedure followed in the sampling and selection of cases, as well the method of collecting the quantitative and qualitative data. Data reduction was necessary because of the longitudinal nature of the study and therefore the strategies used to reduce the data were explained. Finally, the data analysis procedure, ethical considerations and trustworthiness were described. The following two chapters, Chapters 4 and 5 will present the results as well as an analysis and interpretation of the findings related to quantitative and qualitative phases respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR:

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The first step toward change is awareness. The second step is acceptance.

Nathaniel Branden

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis and interpretation of the quantitative data gathered during the course of the longitudinal study. The rationale for collecting the quantitative data was two-fold: to gather information on the self-reported communication profile of participants at the start of their study, and to provide longitudinal data in order to establish whether there were any changes to these profiles over the course of the degree programme, in other words over the four year period. The quantitative sub-question which this chapter aims to answer is: To what extent do FP student teachers experience change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

In the interest of the objectivity of the study, it was important to leave the analysis of the data until the end when all quantitative data had been collected. However, as explained in Sections 3.4 and 3.5.2, the first phase of quantitative data had to be captured and processed immediately after collection in year one, because the results of the first wave of quantitative data was used to select the specific participants for the qualitative phase of the study. Section 4.2 presents the results of the various waves of data collection for the four quantitative surveys. The study investigated four specific aspects which could potentially influence the communication behaviour of participants, namely nonverbal immediacy, communication apprehension, willingness to communicate and self-perceived communication competence, which will be used to guide the interpretation of the quantitative data.

Apart from the phenomenon of non-response (see Sections 4.2. 4.3 and 6.6), it is important to recognise that the surveys were administered as self-report surveys which could have the implication that participants may respond differently from one year to another, based at least

partly, and hopefully, on their exposure to real-life classes and the mentorship of mentor teachers. Therefore, in order to strengthen the generalizability of the findings of the research, this study specifically administered multiple surveys each year for the duration of the study. Another important consideration is that descriptive statistics are used in this case to describe the current situation for this specific group of participants. The quantitative part of this study aims to establish a pattern through the longitudinal surveying of participants over time. It is for this reason that the general discussions will focus on the average (or mean) percentage for this specific group of participants.

Section 4.2 presents the data as follows: for each survey, the descriptive statistics are presented in the form of graphs followed by a discussion of the results. In each instance the y axis represents the average score of the participants and the x axis the year of data collection. Recognising that the use of averages excludes data which could be relevant for forthcoming discussions, histograms will be used at times during the final discussion to indicate, for example, high vs. average vs. low levels of CA, etc.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

The following sub-sections will indicate changes for the various surveys from one year to the next. The integrated interpretation of patterns in the data will follow in 4.3.

4.2.1 Nonverbal immediacy Scale – Self-report (NIS –S)

The Nonverbal Immediacy Self-report was used to survey participants' perception of their nonverbal immediacy over a four-year period. Participants completed the reports every year during the first academic semester[31].

2009: First wave of NIS-S data

The NIS-S was administered to 68 participants in 2009 who agreed to participate in the study (see Section 3.6). Only 3% of the group reported high levels of nonverbal immediacy.

[31] For ease of reading, the visual representation of these results will be placed in Addendum 4.1.

However, it is important to note that these scores were in the lowest range of what is regarded as high – the score reported was 113 and the norm for the high category is indicated as scores above 112. Furthermore, it showed that 53% reported average levels and 44% of the group low levels of nonverbal immediacy.

2010: Second wave of NIS-S data

In 2010 fewer participants participated and 56 participants completed the NIS-S. The majority (61%) reported average levels of nonverbal immediacy during the second wave of data collection. Moreover, 34% of the group scored low and only 5% high with regard to nonverbal immediacy.

2011: *Third wave of NIS-S data*

During the third wave of data collection, 51 participants completed the survey. The difference between the size of the NIS low and NIS average group is relatively small as 45% of the group received low scores for nonverbal immediacy and 51% of the group received an average score. The remaining 4% of the group reported high levels of nonverbal immediacy.

2012: First wave of NIS-S data

During the fourth wave of data collection, 57 participants completed the survey and there was a slight increase in the NIS high group – 7% of the group now is classified as highly nonverbally immediate. As was the case during the third wave of data collection, there was a very slight difference between the low and average groups – 46% scored low and 47% scored average.

4.2.2 Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA – 24)

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24) measures a person's typical reaction to oral interaction with others (Wrench *et al.* 2008:55). Low scores indicate low anxiety and high scores mean that the person is very anxious about communication in general. Participants completed the PRCA-24 every year for a period of four years. The

report measures participants' total communication apprehension, but also CA across various contexts (see Section 3.6.1 in Chapter 3).

4.2.2.1 First wave of PRCA-24 data (2009)

Total CA

In 2009, 69 participants completed the PRCA -24. The majority (61%) of the first year participants reported average levels of communication apprehension in general. It is important to note that this is considered the normal range and the extreme groups, high and low, are considered as abnormal by researchers (Wrench *et al.* 2008:55). In other words, 29% of the group have abnormally high CA in general whereas only 10% of the group can be classified as abnormally low with regard to CA.

CA across various contexts

The context within which the communicative act takes place might affect the level of apprehension a person experiences. Although CA is measured across four different contexts[32], the focus for this study will be on the two which are most relevant to the student teacher, namely the interpersonal and public speaking contexts.

Results indicate that although most participants in this study reported average levels of CA across various contexts, the context of interpersonal communication seemed to create more anxiety for this group than the context of public speaking. 32% of the participants in this study reported abnormally high CA with regard to interpersonal communication. As was the case with the general CA, few participants reported low CA in these various contexts.

4.2.2.2 Second wave of PRCA-24 data (2010)

Total CA

68% of the participants who completed the survey reported normal levels of CA in general. A significant part of the group (27%), however, can be regarded as highly apprehensive about communication in general.

[32] These contexts are: public speaking, interpersonal, meetings and group discussions.

CA across various contexts

During the second wave of data collection the context of interpersonal communication still seemed to affect participants' apprehension levels. Furthermore, the context of public speaking caused slightly less anxiety than the other three contexts.

4.2.2.3 Third wave of PRCA-24 data (2011)

Total CA

In 2011 the PRCA -24 was administered to 51 participants. The majority of third year participants experienced normal communication apprehension in general. However, 24% of the group reported high levels of CA and 14% of the group are, in general, not apprehensive about communication.

CA across various contexts

During the third year there was a shift in the group of participants who were highly apprehensive about interpersonal communication – only 18% of the group reported high CA in interpersonal contexts. However, this shift might be the result of nonresponse. The majority (75%) of the participants reported average levels related to public speaking, whereas 10% reported low CA and 16% high CA.

4.2.2.4 Fourth wave of PRCA-24 data (2012)

Total CA

During the final wave of PRCA -24 data collection 57 participants completed the surveys. The results of the fourth wave of data collection indicate that 28% of the group were highly apprehensive about communication in general. 56% of the group reported average levels of CA in general and after four years 16% of the group can be described as having low CA in general.

CA across various contexts

Results from the final wave of data collection seem to indicate that participants in this study are more highly apprehensive about interpersonal communication than communication in the context of public speaking. The majority of participants reported normal levels of CA in the contexts of public speaking (79%), but only half of the group for interpersonal communication (53%). In addition, 28% of the group were highly apprehensive about interpersonal communication.

4.2.2 Willingness to communicate (WTC)

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is not a specific behaviour, but rather a tendency to initiate communication. People who are highly willing to communicate find it easy to initiate interaction with others where low WTC individuals tend to avoid the initiation of such interaction. As explained in Section 3.6.1.2 the WTC measure indicates an individuals' choice to communicate or not across various contexts and with various receiver types[33], because not only the context, but also the person with whom the interaction should take place could affect the level of WTC.

4.2.3.1 First wave of WTC data (2009)

Total WTC

In 2009, the 69 participants completed the WTC self-report. While 65% of the group falls in the group displaying average levels of willingness to communicate, it is the low and the high group which is particularly interesting. More than a quarter of the group (26%) reported low levels of willingness to communicate and only 10% of the group reported high levels of willingness to communicate.

[33] The receiver type *friend* is not relevant to this study, because the focus is on the student teacher in a classroom context, and therefore this receiver type will not be included in the discussion.

WTC across various contexts

Results from the first wave of data collection reveal that the majority of participants are average with regard to their WTC across a variety of contexts. What is interesting is the fact that fewer participants were lower in their WTC in the public speaking context than in any other contexts. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that 45% of this group were low related to their WTC in interpersonal contexts. 48% of the group reported average levels of WTC in interpersonal context and only 7% of them were highly willing to communicate in interpersonal contexts.

WTC and different receiver types

While the majority of the participants in this study reported average levels of WTC with regards to communication with strangers as well as acquaintances, it is interesting to note that more participants reported lower levels of WTC when communicating with acquaintances (38%) than with strangers (20%). Similarly, slightly more participants are highly willing to communicate with strangers (13%) than with acquaintances (10%).

4.2.3.2 Second wave of WTC data (2010)

Total WTC

During the second wave of WTC data collection 52 participants completed the survey. Results from the second wave of data collection show that although the majority of the participants reported average levels of WTC in general, a significant part of the group (27%) reported low levels of WTC in general. Only 15% of the group saw themselves as highly willing to communicate.

WTC across various contexts

Results from the second wave of data collection of WTC indicated that the majority of participants considered themselves as average with regard to their levels of WTC across various contexts. Furthermore, there seemed to be a significant difference in the low WTC groups. Fewer participants reported low WTC across the various contexts than the year before. It is important to note that a significant part of the group (47%) were unwilling to communicate in interpersonal contexts.

WTC and different receiver types

Results from the second wave of WTC data collection indicated that second year participants were more willing to communicate with strangers than with acquaintances, as was the case with the first years. In 2010 only 10% of participants reported low levels of WTC related to strangers, whereas 37% reported low levels of WTC in communicating with acquaintances. Furthermore, 21% reported high levels of WTC with strangers and only 6% were highly willing to communicate with acquaintances.

4.2.3.3 Third wave of WTC data (2011)

Total WTC

During the third wave of data collection 51 participants completed the WTC self-report. Results indicated that the majority of the participants saw themselves as average in their willingness to communicate in general. Only 14% regarded themselves as highly willing to communicate and 22% of the group were low in their WTC in general.

WTC across various contexts

The majority of participants in this group (69%) regarded themselves as average with regard to their WTC in the context of public speaking and only 14% scored low in their WTC in this context. However, 47% of the group considered themselves as unwilling to communicate in interpersonal contexts. Another interesting result is that low WTC represented the smallest group which seems to suggest that the number of participants who were unwilling to communicate in public speaking contexts was smaller than those who were unwilling to communicate in interpersonal contexts.

WTC and different receiver types

Results from the 2011 wave of data collection indicated that more participants were low in their WTC with acquaintances (41%) than with strangers (14%). Furthermore, more of them reported high WTC (24%) with regard to communicating with strangers than with acquaintances (4%). While the majority reported average levels of WTC with both receiver

types, results seem to indicate that these participants were more willing to communicate with strangers than with acquaintances.

4.2.3.4 Fourth wave of WTC data (2012)

Total WTC

The fourth and final wave of data collection surveyed 57 participants on WTC and results indicated that 28% of participants remained unwilling to communicate in general. The average group represented a slight majority (53%) and only 19% of the group indicated after four years that they are highly willing to communicate in general.

WTC across various contexts

Results indicated that the majority of the participants were average with regard to their WTC across various contexts. Only 12% reported low levels of WTC regarding public speaking. More participants seemed to be low in their willingness to communicate in interpersonal contexts (35%). The size of the group highly WTC across these contexts is also interesting: 23% are highly willing to communicate in the context of public speaking and only 11% of these participants are highly willing to communicate in interpersonal contexts.

WTC and different receiver types

Participants in this study seemed to be more willing to communicate with strangers than with acquaintances. Results from the final wave of data collection indicated that 12% of the group was unwilling to communicate with strangers, but that 44% of the group was unwilling to communicate with acquaintances. Moreover, 61% of them reported average levels of WTC with strangers whereas 47% of the group reported average levels of WTC with acquaintances. Similarly, 26% of the group can be classified as highly willing to communicate with strangers and only 9% as highly willing to communicate with acquaintances.

4.2.4 Self-perceived Communication Competence (SPCC)

An individual's self-perceived communication competence reflects his/her perceptions of communication competence in various settings (McCroskey 1997). The measure comprises 12 items that relate to four basic communication contexts, namely speaking in public, large meetings, small groups and talking in pairs (dyads); however, as mentioned previously, the focus here will be on the contexts of public speaking and dyads. In addition, the measure deals with three general types of receivers, namely strangers, acquaintances and friends[34].

4.2.4.1 First wave of SPCC data (2009)

Total SPCC

In 2009 68 participants completed the SPCC survey. 33% of them perceived their communication competence as low. Only 6% felt very confident about their communication competence, whereas the remaining 61% of participants felt that they had an average level of communication competence.

SPCC across various contexts

Results from the first wave of SPCC data collection indicated that first year participants had an average perception of their communication skills across various settings. 42% of them reported low levels of SPCC in interpersonal contexts. Furthermore, 22% reported low levels of SPCC for public speaking. Overall, less than 10% of this group indicated that they have a high impression of their communication competence across these different contexts.

SPCC and different receiver types

First year participants seemed to feel more competent about their communication with strangers than with acquaintances. Only 28% reported low SPCC when faced with strangers as receivers, as opposed to the 42% who indicated that they have low SPCC when they have to communicate with acquaintances. Very few of these participants reported high levels of self-perceived communication competence when communicating with strangers or acquaintances.

[34] As mentioned previously, the receiver type *friend* is not relevant to this study and will, therefore, not be included in the discussion.

4.2.4.2 Second wave of SPCC data (2010)

Total SPCC

During the second year of study participants scored slightly higher on the SPCC scale. Only 16% scored low during their second year of study. There was also an increase in the number of participants who scored high for total SPCC; 14% scored high during the second year, as opposed to the 6% during the first year. The majority of the group (73%) felt that they had average levels of communication competence, which is a marked increase since the first year (62%).

SPCC across various contexts

Results from the second wave of SPCC data collection indicated that participants' view of their communication competence across various contexts was average. Only 8% of them felt highly competent in public speaking contexts and 18% of them felt highly competent as communicators in interpersonal contexts. Almost a quarter of the group indicated that they perceived their communication competence as low across various contexts.

SPCC and different receiver types

Similar to the year before, participants seemed to feel that they were more competent to speak to strangers than to acquaintances. The majority indicated that they had average communication competence related to interacting with strangers as well as with acquaintances.

4.2.4.3 Third wave of SPCC data (2011)

Total SPCC

Third year participants in general had an average perception of their communication competence. About 18% of them still regarded their communication competence as low in general, whilst only 18% had a high perception of their communication competence in general. The majority (64%) reported average levels of SPCC.

SPCC across various contexts

The majority of the group scored average during the third wave of data collection regarding SPCC over different contexts. Interpersonal communication reflected a very low SPCC in general. Furthermore, 16% of the group scored high in the context of public speaking and 14% with regard to interpersonal communication.

SPCC and different receiver types

Results indicated that third year participants seemed to feel that they were more competent to communicate with strangers than with acquaintances. Only 6% of the group reported low levels of SPCC with regard to communication with strangers, whereas 37% reported low SPCC with regard to communication with acquaintances. 75% of the third years indicated average levels of SPCC about communicating with strangers and 49% felt that they had average communication competence when considering communicating with acquaintances. Similarly, 20% of the group perceived their communication competence as high when communicating with strangers and 14% felt the same about communicating with acquaintances.

4.2.4.4 Fourth wave of SPCC data (2012)

Total SPCC

Results from the final wave of data collection for self-perceived communication competence indicated that after four years 21% of participants have a negative perception of their communication competence. Only 19% of them indicated that they have high SPCC and 60% of the group indicated that they have average SPCC.

SPCC across various contexts

The majority of the participants who were surveyed in 2012 can be described as average with regard to their perception of their communication competence across various contexts. 25% of the group reported low levels of SPCC for public speaking as well as in interpersonal contexts. Less than 20% of the group scored high for any of the contexts.

SPCC and different receiver types

In 2012 the majority of the participants reported average levels of SPCC when communicating with strangers and acquaintances. Fewer reported low SPCC regarding communication with strangers (11%) compared to acquaintances (25%). Furthermore, more participants seemed to feel that were highly competent when communicating with strangers (19%) compared to communicating with acquaintances (12%).

4.3 QUANTITATIVE AGGREGATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.3.1 Nonverbal immediacy scale – self-report (NIS-S)

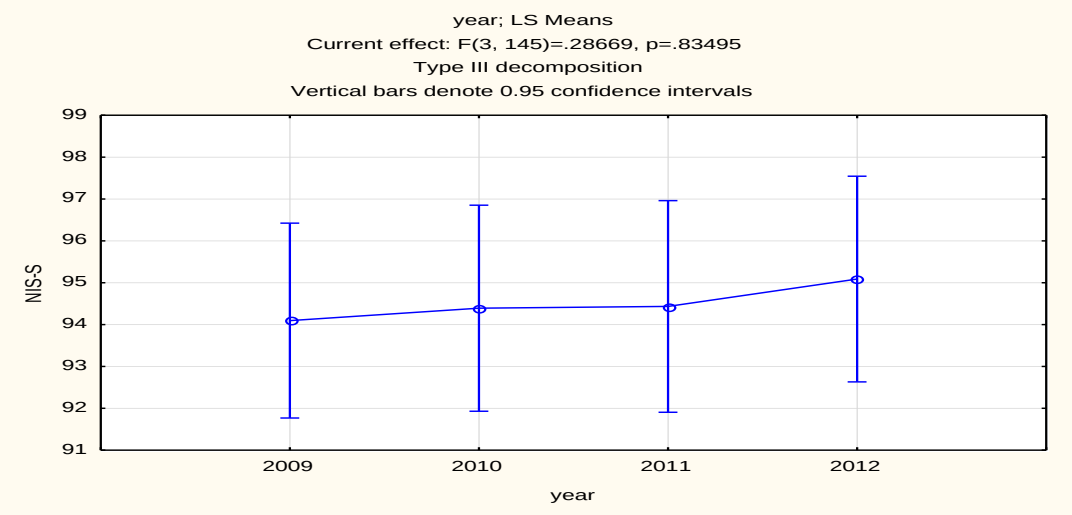
The NIS-S was used to survey perception of the participants of their nonverbal immediacy over the four year period. The NIS-S was developed to measure how nonverbally immediate individuals perceive themselves to be when interacting with others. Participants completed the reports every year during the first semester. The nonverbal immediacy self-report survey was administered on a longitudinal basis in order to (a) identify student teachers' views of their nonverbal immediacy levels and (b) to establish if there were any changes in their perceived nonverbal immediacy over the four-year period as they were exposed to real-life teaching in schools during scheduled practical teaching sessions.

The measure is suited to various contexts with high reliability and validity (Richmond *et al.* 2003). The measure comprises of 26 Likert items which range from one (*never)* to five indicating (*very often)*. Scores should range between 26 and 130 (Wrench *et al.* 2008) with lower scores indicating a lower perception of levels of nonverbal immediacy and higher scores pointing to a stronger perception of levels of nonverbal immediacy behaviours. The alpha reliability[35] for the NIS-S measure in this study was 0.80; M = 94.49, SD = 10.08 (Addendum 4.2, Table 1).

[35] The Crohnbach's alpha is used to estimate the reliability of a measure and according to Wrench *et al.* (2008:195), scores between 0.80 and 0.90 can be considered good with regard to the measures reliability. Scores between 0.70 and 0.80 can be described as respectable.

Figure 4.1 indicates that the perception of participants relating to their nonverbal immediacy remained constant over time (F (3, 145) = .29, p = 0.83). A significant change of the results would be indicated by a p value smaller than 0.05 (Babbie 2010:482).

Figure 4.1: NIS-S: 2009 to 2012



The y-axis of the graph in Figure 4.1 represents the average score for the group for NIS-S over the years and the x-axis indicates the years of data collection. The descriptive statistics (Addendum 4.2, Table 2) indicates that the mean in this study is at 94.49. This means that on the one hand the scores are in the range of the average category, however, it is at a very low point of what is regarded as average, considering that a score of 92, according to Richmond *et al.* (2003), indicates a low NIS-S score.

The data on the NIS-S of participants shows the following:

- The participants' self-reported levels of nonverbal immediacy remained constant over the period of study. From this can be inferred that after a considerable time period little would change in the perceived level of nonverbal immediacy behaviours.
- A small proportion of the participants scored high. In fact, after four years 47% of the population remained in the average group and 46% scored low. This is particularly significant in light of the importance of nonverbal immediacy in the classroom (as discussed in Section 2.3.4).

4.3.2 Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA – 24)

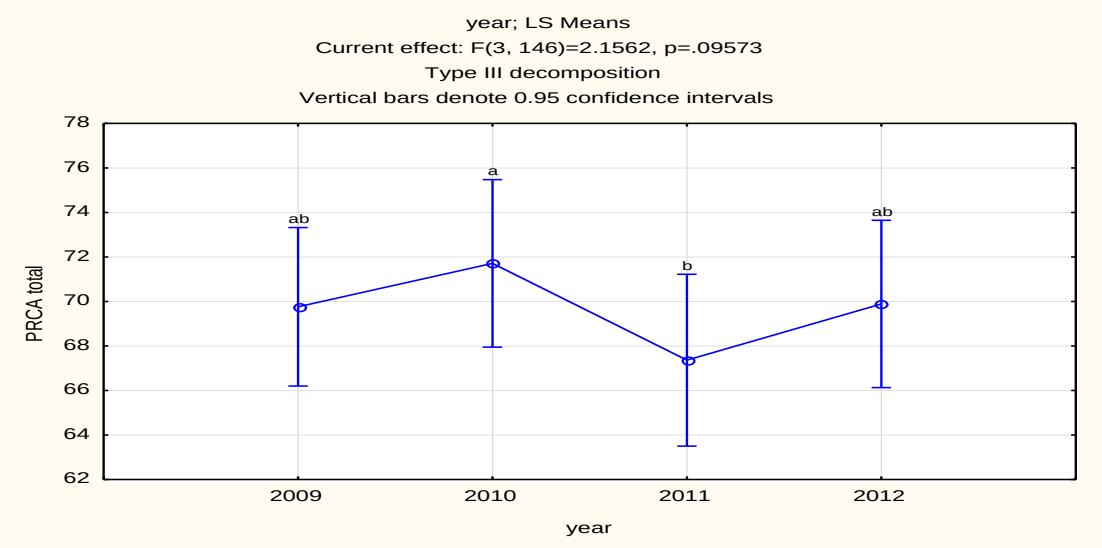
The PRCA-24 measures the typical response of a person to oral interaction with others (Wrench, McCroskey & Richmond 2008:55). The report measures total CA as well as CA across the contexts of public speaking, interpersonal, meetings and group discussions (Section 3.6.1.1). However, in order to remain focussed the two contexts that are most relevant to the development of the student teachers, namely the public speaking and interpersonal contexts, will be analysed. Group discussions and meetings are not as relevant to the teaching practice context as some schools allow student teachers to be part of such discussions and other schools prefer not to include them. Furthermore, the interpersonal nature of the relationship between the student teacher and the mentor teacher is particularly relevant to this study. Lastly, because the practice of the student teacher is evaluated the context of public speaking needs to be included in the later discussion. This pertains to all further discussions.

McCroskey (1982) developed the PRCA-24 in order to determine the level of fear individuals experience regarding either real or anticipated communication with others. He used a 24-item Likert scale which consists of statements related to feelings about communication. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which the statement applies to them by indicating: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neutral = 3; Agree = 4 and Strongly Agree = 5. The alpha reliability for the measure in this study was 0.86; M = 70.63, SD = 15.70 (Addendum 4.2, Table 3). Low scores indicate low anxiety and high scores imply that the person is very anxious about communication in general. An average score (between 50 and 80) is considered normal, because most people experience some form of anxiety at some or other stage (Wrench *et al.* 2008:64). Scores for the other three surveys (NIS-S, WTC & SPCC) also represent positions on a continuum from low to high, e.g. a score of 90 for NIS-S indicates low NIS and 115 high NIS. However, the interpretation of the PRCA-24 scores has an additional dimension to consider, because the measure includes a normative range which is considered average and acceptable. Scores that fall above and below this range are considered to be deviant of the norm.

4.3.2.1 Progression of Total CA

Figure 4.2 shows that although no significant differences (p=0.10) were found over the years for communication apprehension, the data did indicate a trend for a decrease from 2010 to 2011. This could be attributed to, as mentioned in the limitations to this study (see Section 6.6), a number of factors such as nonresponse, but also the subjective nature of people's thinking (F(3, 146) = 2.1562, p = 0.10). It is important to note however that the results indicated no difference between 2009 and 2012.

Figure 4.2: Total PRCA progression: 2009 to 2012



The letters annotated on the graph indicate possible significant differences between individual years. Overlapping letters indicate no significant difference (p>0.05) whereas no overlapping letters (e.g. 2010 vs 2011) indicated significant differences (p<0.05).

Additionally, the average score for the group can be regarded as above normal as the mean is indicated as 65.5. The scores presented on the y-axis indicate that the participants in this study represent what is considered a significantly 'high' normal. Wrench *et al.* (2008) argue that a score between 70 and 80 is high for the average population, which means that these participants probably experience slightly higher levels of CA than the average population.

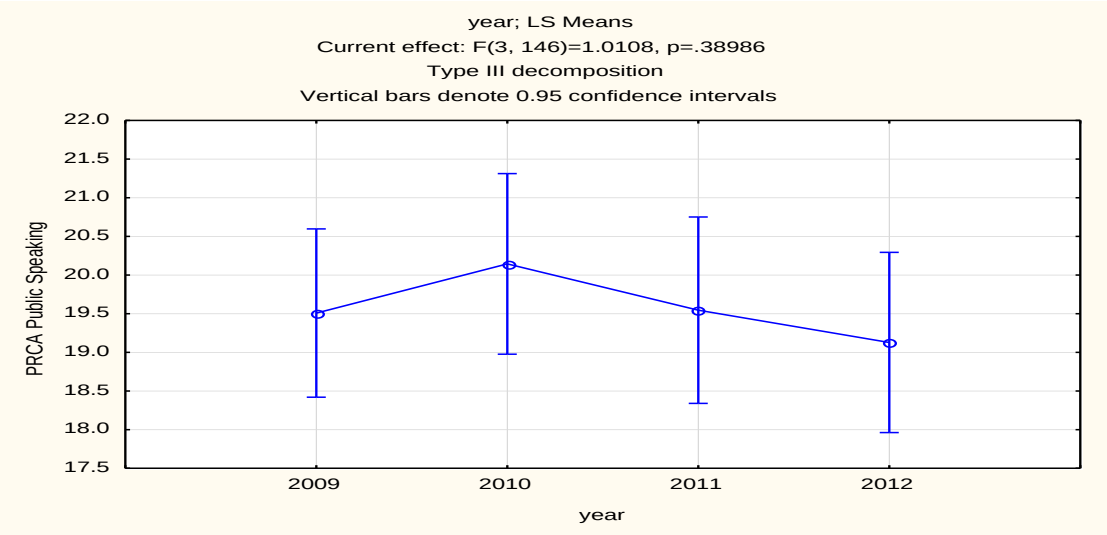
In other words, the level of communication apprehension is likely to remain stable over time. This seems to support the trait perspective on CA as discussed in chapter 2 (Section 2.3.2), which maintains that CA is a stable trait that does not change over time. One can therefore argue that participants, who are highly apprehensive about communication when they enter the four-year B Ed degree programme, will most probably exit the programme highly apprehensive about communication in general.

4.3.2.2 Progression of CA across various contexts

Public speaking

Figure 4.3 below indicates statistically no change in the levels of communication apprehension related to public speaking (F (3, 146) = 1.0108, p = 0.38986).

Figure 4.3: Progression of PRCA public speaking: 2009 to 2012

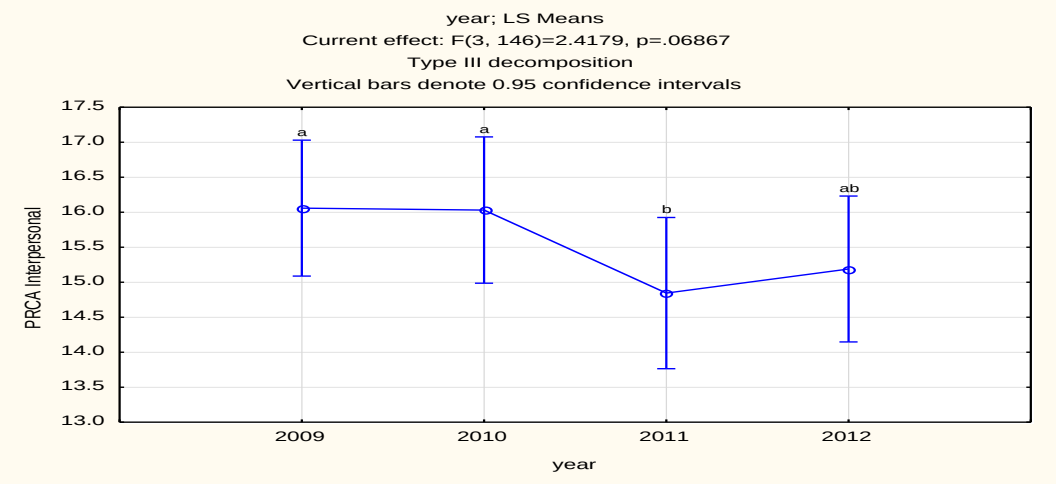


In general, this group of participants can be described as highly apprehensive regarding public speaking. Wrench *et al.* (2008) indicate that scores above 18 are considered high for the different contexts and scores above 23 indicate extremely high levels of CA. The mean score for the measure is 19.83 (Addendum 4.2, Table 5) and Figure 4.3 shows that this group showed no significant change over time. As mentioned previously, a significant change of the results would be indicated by a p value smaller than 0.05 (Babbie 2010:482).

Interpersonal

Figure 4.4 shows that although there was a slight change in levels of interpersonal PRCA (F (3, 146) = 2.4179, p = 0.07) over the years, it is not significant at 5% (p=0.07). The trend indicated a decrease from 2010 to 2011. However, in general the average level of CA related to the interpersonal contexts is higher than average (scores above 18 are regarded as high as explained in the previous section), indicating that participants are more apprehensive in this context than most people would be.

Figure 4.4: Progression of interpersonal PRCA: 2009 to 2012



As mentioned in Section 4.3.2.1 the letters annotated on the graph indicate possible significant differences between individual years. Overlapping letters indicate no significant difference (p>0.05), however no overlapping letters (e.g. 2010 vs 2011) indicated significant differences (p<0.05). Therefore, anxiety related to interpersonal communication did not improve over time and participants are slightly higher in their apprehension in this regard than normal. Furthermore, in the final wave of data collection 28% of the participants reported a high level of interpersonal CA (see Addendum 4.1). This means that after four years more than a quarter of the participants in this study are highly apprehensive about interpersonal communication.

In summary, the data on the PRCA of participants show the following:

- There were very slight changes in the levels of CA of participants over time which means that if one is highly apprehensive in general, one is likely to remain highly apprehensive, but can also possibly experience high levels of communication anxiety in a variety of contexts.
- There was a slight improvement in the level of CA related to interpersonal contexts, however it is still statistically noticeable at 10%, however not significant at 5% (p = 0.07).

4.3.3 Willingness to communicate (WTC)

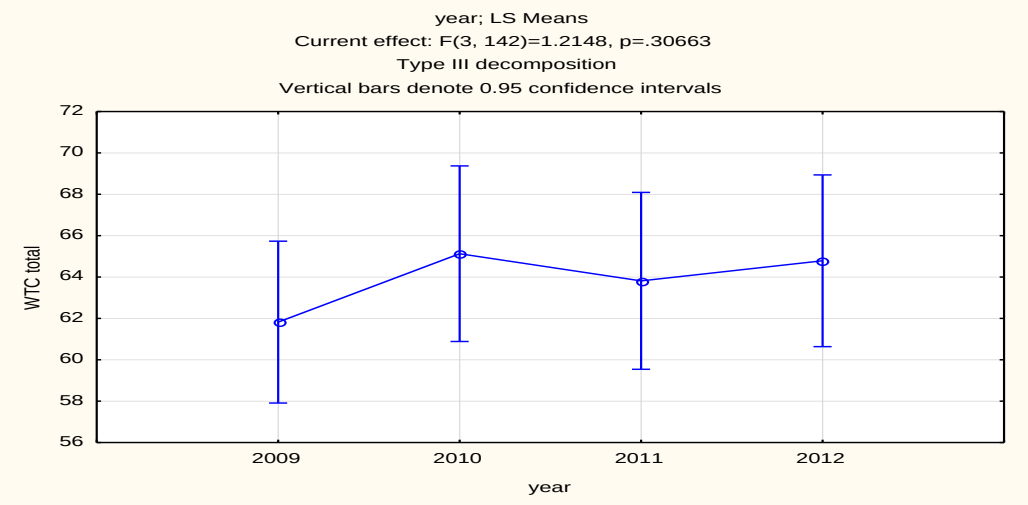
As explained in Section 2.3.2.3, willingness to communicate (WTC) refers to a tendency to initiate and sustain communication and interactions. People who are highly willing to communicate find it easy to initiate and sustain interaction with others whereas individuals with low levels of WTC tend to avoid the initiation of such interaction as far as possible. The WTC measure indicates the participants' choice to communicate or not across various contexts and with various types of receivers[36], such as strangers, acquaintances and friends. This is because not only the context, but also the person with whom the interaction should take place could affect the level of WTC. The Cronbach alpha reliability for the measure in this study is .81; *M* = 189.148; *SD* = 50.91 (Addendum 4.2; Table 7).

4.3.3.1 Progression of total WTC

Figure 4.5 displays the results of the various waves of data collection over the four years. The results show no change in levels of WTC from the first to the final year (F (3, 142) = 1.2148, p= 0.30663). A significant change in results would be represented by a p value smaller than 0.05 (Babbie 2010:482); also, the omission of letters annotated in the graph underlines the fact that no significant changes were reported.

[36] The receiver type 'friend' is not specifically relevant to the teacher education context and will therefore not be included in the discussion.

Figure 4.5: Progression of total WTC: 2009 to 2012



The total WTC for this group remained in the lower average range as the mean = 63.04 (Addendum 4.2; Table 8). McCroskey *et al.* (2006) consider scores of between 52 and 82 as average. A score of 63.04 should then be interpreted as rather low within the average range. What is particularly significant is that more than 25% of the participants indicate that they are in general not willing to communicate (see Addendum 4.1)

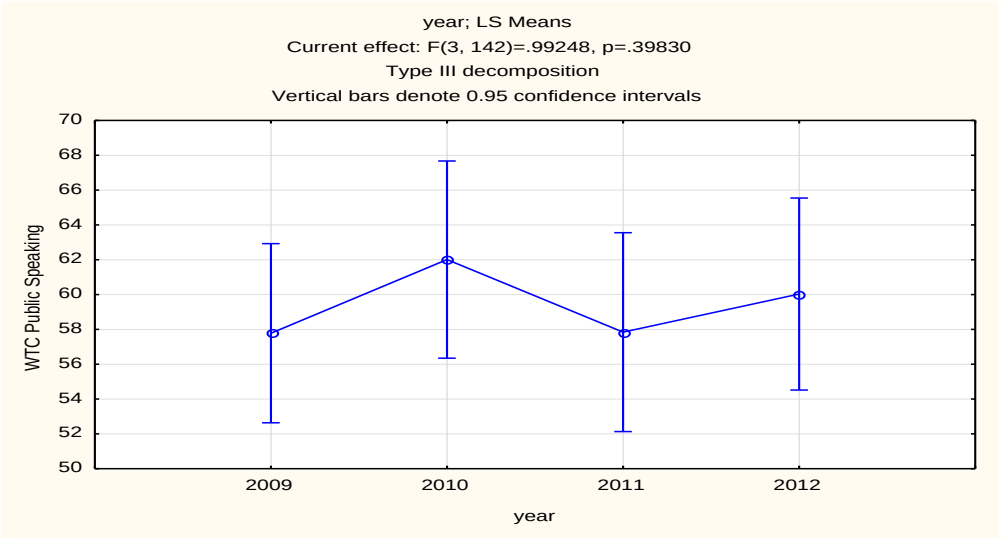
4.3.3.2 Progression of WTC across various contexts

A person may be more or less willing to communicate depending on the specific context. This section briefly describes the development of WTC across the various contexts.

Public speaking WTC

Although Figure 4.6 seems to suggest some movement, results of levels of WTC of participants related to public speaking over the four-year period indicate no statistically significant changes (F (3, 142) = 0.99, p = 0.39830).

Figure 4.6: Progression of public speaking WTC: 2009 to 2012

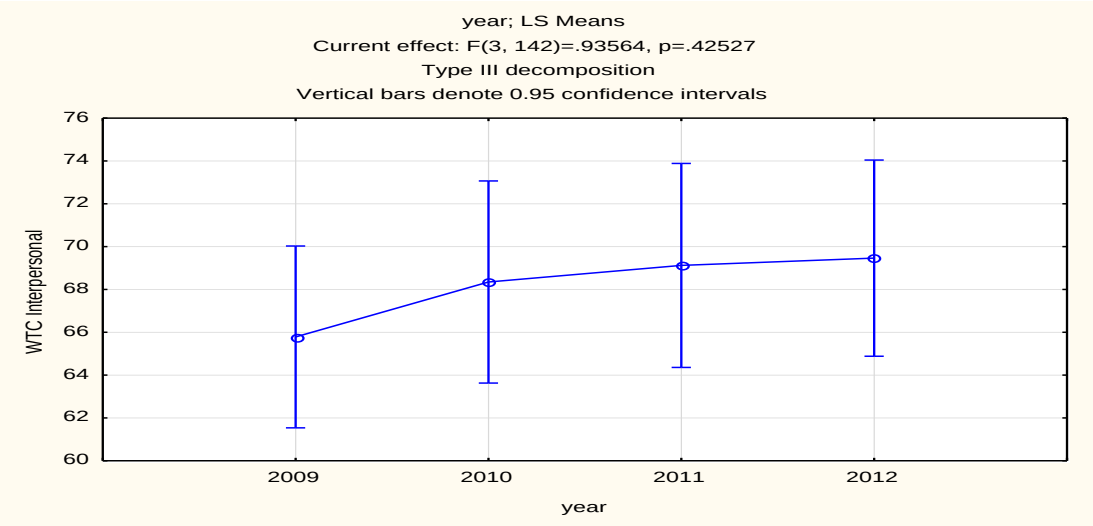


What is interesting is that the group mean is 58.63 (see Addendum 4.2, Table 9) with regard to public speaking and this remained stable throughout the study. McCroskey *et al.* (2006) indicate that scores between 33 and 78 indicated average WTC.

Interpersonal WTC

Figure 4.7 shows that in general participants' WTC related to interpersonal contexts did not change over time.

Figure 4.7: Progression of interpersonal WTC: 2009 to 2012



The descriptive statistics (Addendum 4.2, Table 10) indicate that the mean in this study is at 67.57. This means that on the one hand the scores are in the range of the average category, however, it is in the lower range of what is regarded as average, considering that a score of 64, according to McCroskey *et al*. (2006), indicates low WTC in interpersonal contexts. Furthermore, a very small proportion of the group scored high with regard to WTC in an interpersonal context. After four years, only 11% indicated that they are very willing to communicate interpersonally (see Addendum 4.1). As mentioned previously, when applied to the specific nature of the interpersonal context within which a student teacher functions, it involves interaction with different parties, namely the learners, mentor teachers, as well as external evaluators.

The interpersonal WTC profile of this specific group is very interesting. From the discussion in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.2) it is clear that interpersonal communication is an essential part of teaching. Given the fact that all students have 12 years of exposure to teaching before they start the degree programme, one would have expected that they understood the interpersonal nature of the classroom and that they would therefore have been more willing to interact on an interpersonal level in general. However, results indicate that in the fourth year 35% of participants have low levels of WTC on an interpersonal level.

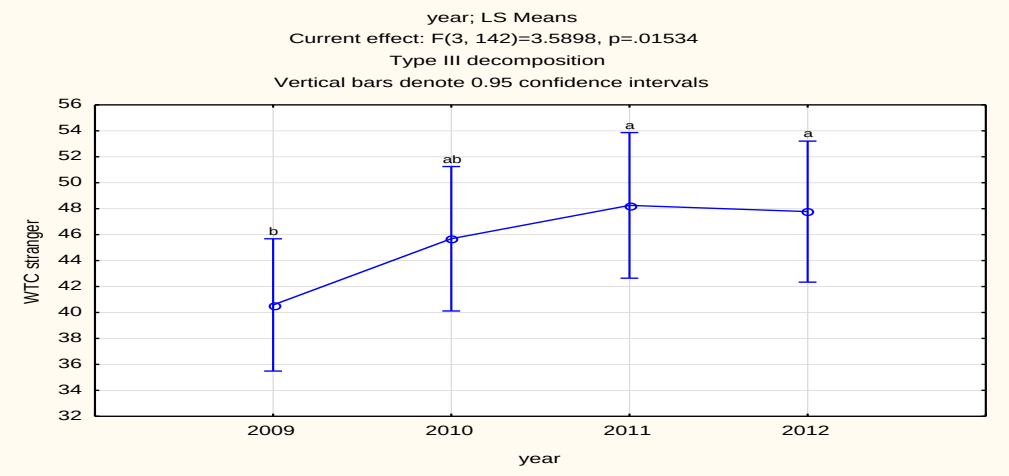
4.3.3.3 Progression of WTC with different receiver types

As stated earlier, for the scope of this study the focus is only on strangers and acquaintances as receiver types.

Strangers

Figure 4.8 indicates that there was a change in the levels of WTC when communicating with strangers from the first to the third year, thereafter, however, it remained stable ($F(3, 142) = 3.5898$, $p = 0.01534$). As mentioned in Section 4.3.2.1 the letters annotated on the graph indicate possible significant differences between individual years. Overlapping letters (e.g. 2009 vs 2010; 2010 vs 2011) indicate no significant difference ($p>0.05$), however no overlapping letters (e.g. 2009 vs 2011) indicated significant differences ($p<0.05$). The repeated use of the ‘a’ (e.g. 2011 and 2012) suggest no further change.

Figure 4.8: Progression of WTC with strangers: 2009 to 2012

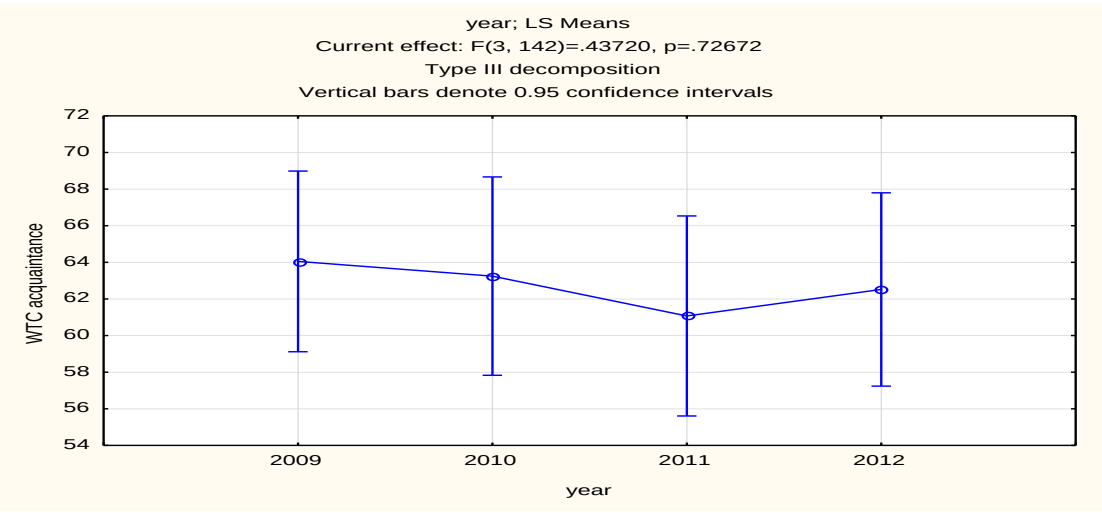


In general the group scored average (scores between 18 and 63 according to McCroskey *et al. 2006*) with regard to their WTC with strangers (mean = 44.31- Addendum 4.2; Table 11). From the first to the fourth year there was an increase, so that in their final year 26% of the participants indicated that they were highly willing to communicate with strangers.

Acquaintances

There were no changes in the level of WTC with acquaintances (F (3, 142) = .43720, p = .72672) as indicated in Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9: Progression of WTC with acquaintances: 2009 to 2012



Results indicate that in general the participants in this study had an average score for WTC with receivers who can be described as acquaintances (*M* = 61.85) – Addendum 4.2; Table 12. Although this group falls within what is considered an average range, scores were particularly low for the range, as was the case with interpersonal WTC. McCroskey *et al.* (2006) consider scores between 57 and 92 as average WTC in this context. What is worth noting is that 44% of participants reported low levels of WTC with acquaintances in 2012 and only 9% indicated that they were very willing to communicate with acquaintances.

In summary, the data on WTC of participants shows the following:

- The levels of total WTC of participants did not change over time.
- There was an improvement in the level of WTC with strangers, however, there was no change in level of WTC regarding communication with acquaintances.

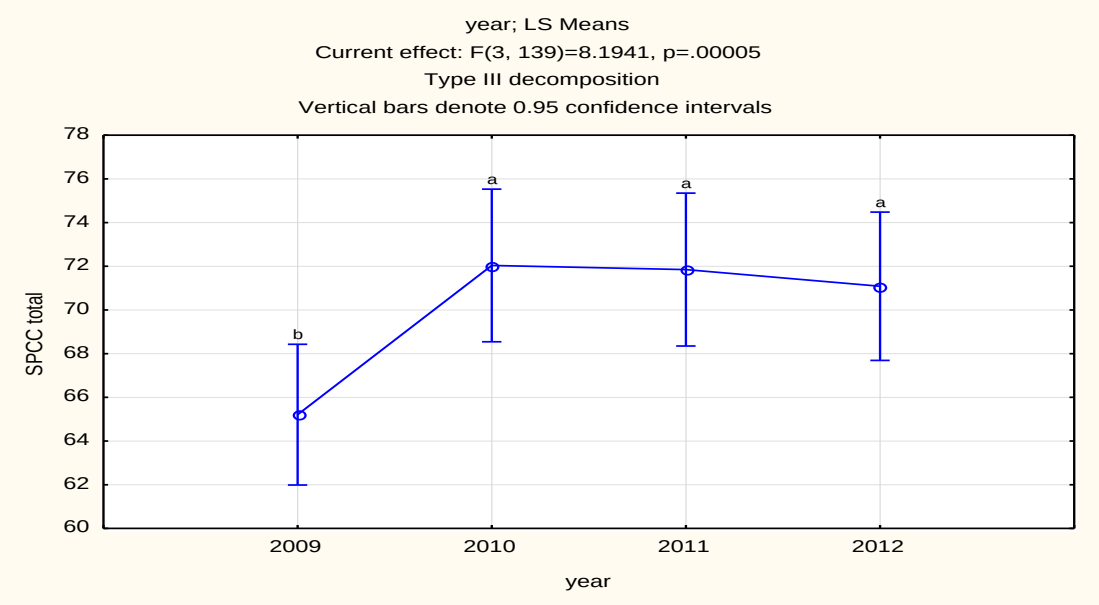
4.3.4 Self-perceived Communication Competence (SPCC)

The level of self-perceived communication competence of an individual reflects his/her perceptions of communication competence in various settings (McCroskey 1997). The decision whether to communicate or not lies within one self and is influenced by the perception one has about one's communication abilities. It is for this reason that the perception is of greater value than the impression of an observer. McCroskey and McCroskey (1988) developed the self-perceived communication competence measure (SPCC) to investigate how competent people perceive themselves to be in various communication contexts and also with different types of receivers. It is important to bear in mind that the SPCC measures perceived communication competence and not actual competence (Section 1.7.1). Although perceived competence and actual competence may be related, they are not identical. The measure consists of 12 items reflecting situations in which the participants may need to communicate. Participants are asked to indicate on a scale from 0 = completely incompetent to 100 = competent, how competent they perceive themselves to be. The alpha reliability for the measure in this study was 0.73, *M* = 69.16, *SD* = 14.13 (Addendum 4.2; Table 13).

4.3.4.1 Progression of total SPCC

Figure 4.10 shows that there was an improvement in the levels of self-perceived communication competence of the participants between their first year and second of study ($F(3, 139) = 8.1941$, $p = 0.00005$). The use of the annotated letters indicate a significant change between 2009 and 2010.

Figure 4.10: Progression of total SPCC: 2009 to 2012



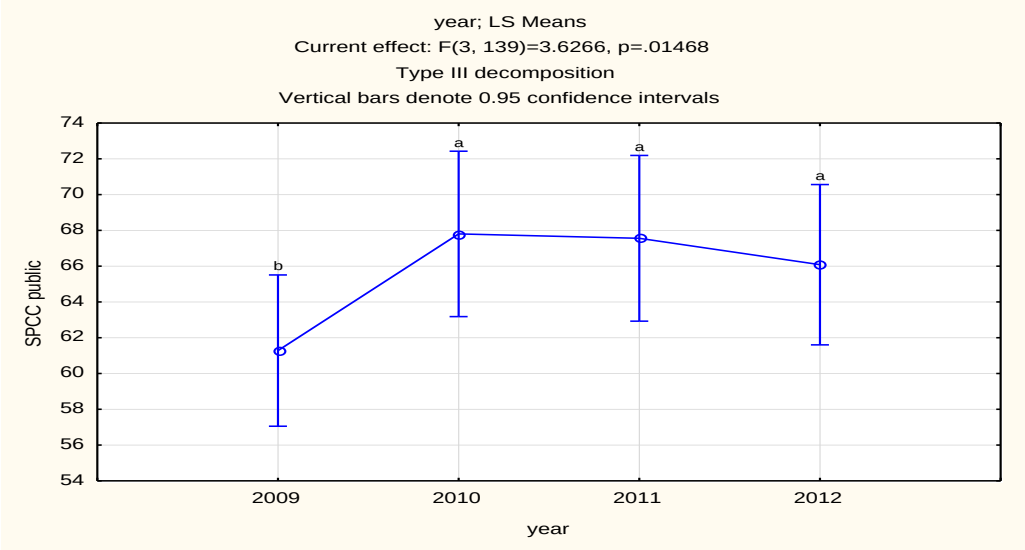
However the repeated use of the letter 'a' in 2011 and 2012 suggests that thereafter no further change occurred. This shows that participants do not perceive themselves as more competent communicators in the fourth year of study. Furthermore, throughout the study the group scored within the average range because the *M* for total SPCC is indicated as 69.16 (Addendum 4.2; Table 13) and McCroskey *et al.* (2006) claim that scores between 59 and 87 are considered average levels of SPCC.

4.3.4.2 Progression of SPCC across various contexts

Public speaking

From Figure 4.11 it is clear that the only statitstically significant improvement (p = 0.01) in the levels of SPCC of participants related to public speaking occured between the first and second years (F (3, 139) = 3.6266, p = 0 .01).

Figure 4.11: Progression of public speaking SPCC: 2009 to 2012



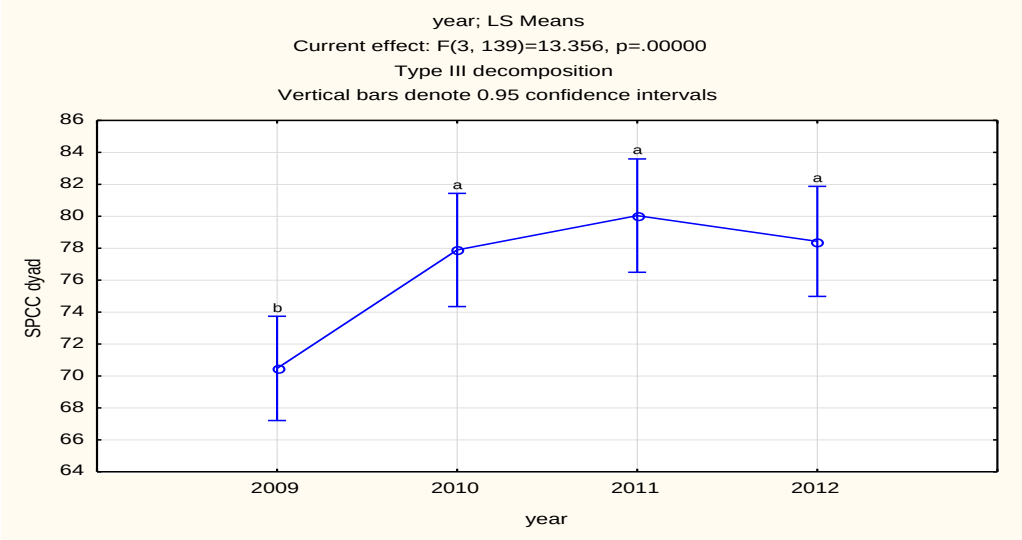
From the second to the final year no further significant changes occurred. On the graph, this is also indicated by the letters: between 2009 and 2010 there is a shift from ‘b’ to ‘a’ and thereafter it remains ‘a’. The whole group remained slightly below average in this context (*M* = 65.06, Addendum 4.2; Table 15). According to McCroskey *et al.* (2006) scores between 51 and 86 indicate a self-perception of moderate competence. Furthermore, 25% of the participants maintained the perception that they were not competent public speakers. In the final wave of data collection only 16% of participants felt that they were highly competent public speakers. The majority of the group considered themselves to be average with regard to public speaking ability.

Dyad

A similar pattern to the context of public speaking is presented in Figure 4.12 with regard to the development of the SPCC of participants in interactions with dyads. There was

improvement from the first to the second year, but thereafter no statistically signigicant changes followed (F(3, 139) = 13.356, p = 0.00). As before, the annoted letters on the graph signify the only change as between 2009 and 2010.

Figure 4.12: Progression of dyad SPCC: 2009 to 2012



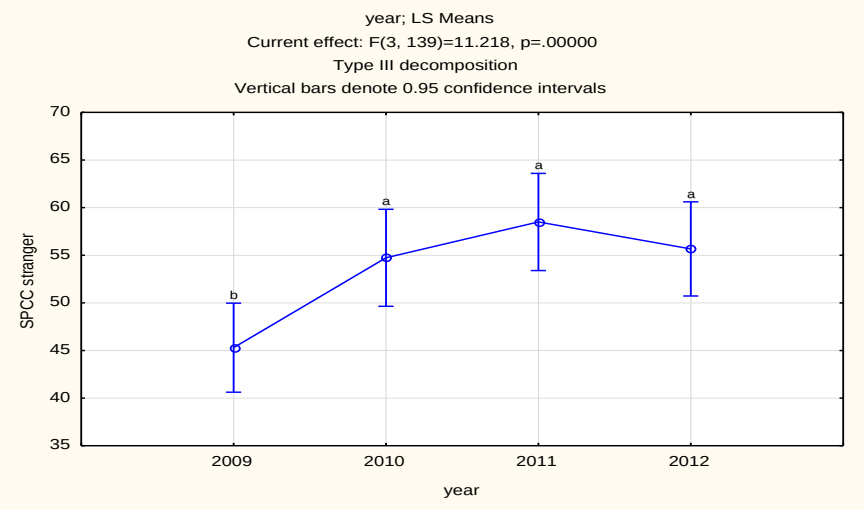
The group remained in the average range throughout (*M* = 75.62; Addendum 4.1, Table 16) as scores between 68 and 93 indicate average levels of SPCC in this context (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). In 2009 42% of the participants indicated that they feel incompetent about speaking in pairs. There was a noticeable improvement so that in the final year only 25% reported that they regard themselves as incompetent when speaking in pairs (see Addendum 4.1).

4.3.4.3 Progression of SPCC with different receiver types

Stranger

Figure 4.13 indicates that this group of participants scored fairly low in the range regarded as average, with *M* = 52.36 (Addendum 4.2; Table 17) in SPCC when interacting with strangers. Scores between 31 and 79 are considered average (McCroskey *et al.* 2006).

Figure 4.13: Progression of stranger SPCC: 2009 to 2012

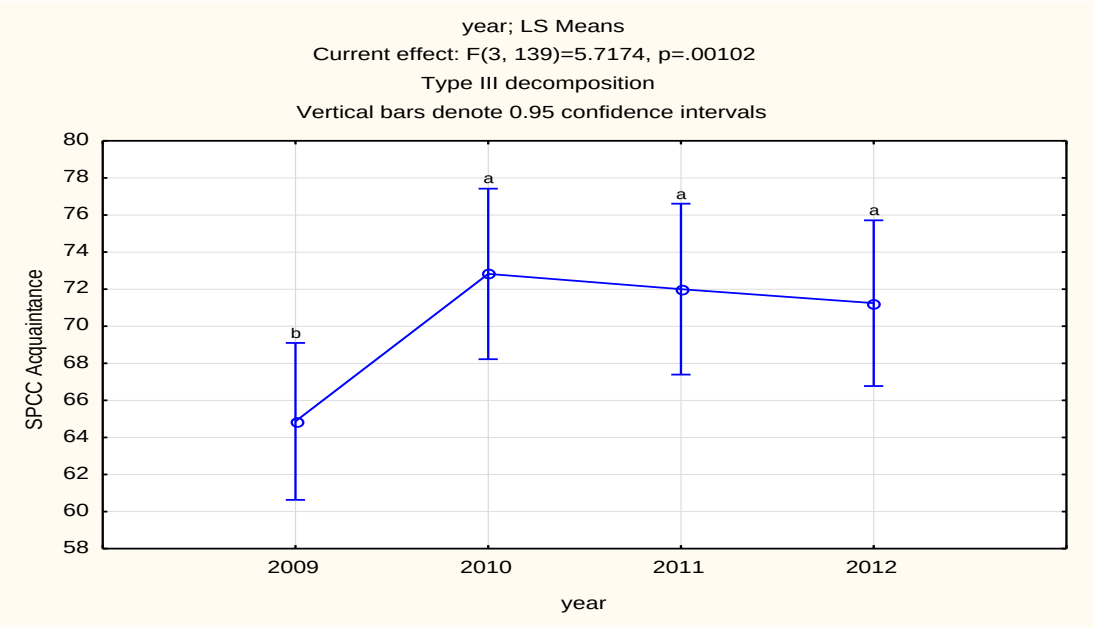


A similar pattern to the different contexts can be seen. There was a significant improvement in students' perception of their own communication competence when interacting with strangers between the first and second year but thereafter no further changes occurred. On the figure the shift is indicated from ‘b’ to ‘a’ and thereafter, regardless of the slight deviations, it stays ‘a’. In 2009 only 4% of the participants indicated that they were highly competent when speaking to strangers. However, in 2012 19% indicated that they felt highly competent about communicating with strangers. Furthermore, initially 28% felt that they were not competent when speaking to strangers and this percentage decreased to 11% in 2012 (see Addendum 4.1).

Acquaintances

As was the case with the receiver type strangers, Figure 4.14 indicates that participants improved between the first two years of their studies with regard to SPCC about communication with acquaintances. The use of the annotated letters indicate a shift from ‘b’ to ‘a’ between 2009 and 2010 only.

Figure 4.14: Progression of acquaintance SPCC: 2009 to 2012



From the second to the fourth year no significant improvements in SPCC with regard to interacting with acquaintances took place. Overall, there was a significant improvement in the participants' self-perceived communication competence when interacting with acquaintances. Initially, 42% of participants indicated that they did not feel competent to interact with acquaintances, however, the improvement in SPCC in this context meant that in 2012 only 20% still regarded themselves to be incompetent when communicating with acquaintances (see Addendum 4.2).

In summary, the data on the SPCC of participants shows that there was an increase in levels of SPCC of participants between the first and second year and thereafter no further changes occurred. This trend was noticeable not only for total SPCC, but also for SPCC across various context as well as various receiver types.

4.4 CORRELATING COMMUNCATION APPREHENSION, WILLINGENESS TO COMMUICATE AND SELF-PERCEIVED COMMUNICATION COMPTENCE

Zakahi and McCroskey (1989:98) found significant correlations between WTC and a variety of trait-like orientations, indicating that WTC is negatively associated with communication apprehension, but positively with self-perceived communication skills. The results of this study confirm these correlations as indicated in Figures 4.15, 4.16 and 4.17 below (see Addendum 4.3 for the correlations).

As discussed in Section 2.3.2, the literature indicates that WTC appears to be the best predictor of actual communication approach or avoidance behaviours. PRCA and SPCC appear to measure the factors that make major contributions to the prediction of a person's WTC (McCroskey 1997:105). Low apprehension (PRCA) and high perception of communication competence (SPCC) should predict high willingness to communicate (WTC). PLS preference mapping plot graphically indicating correlations between sets of variables. If variables are plotted on the same side of the graph and in or close to the correlation circles annotated on the graph, it indicates positive correlation. Variables plotted on opposite sides indicate negative correlation.

Figure 4.15: PRCA vs WTC

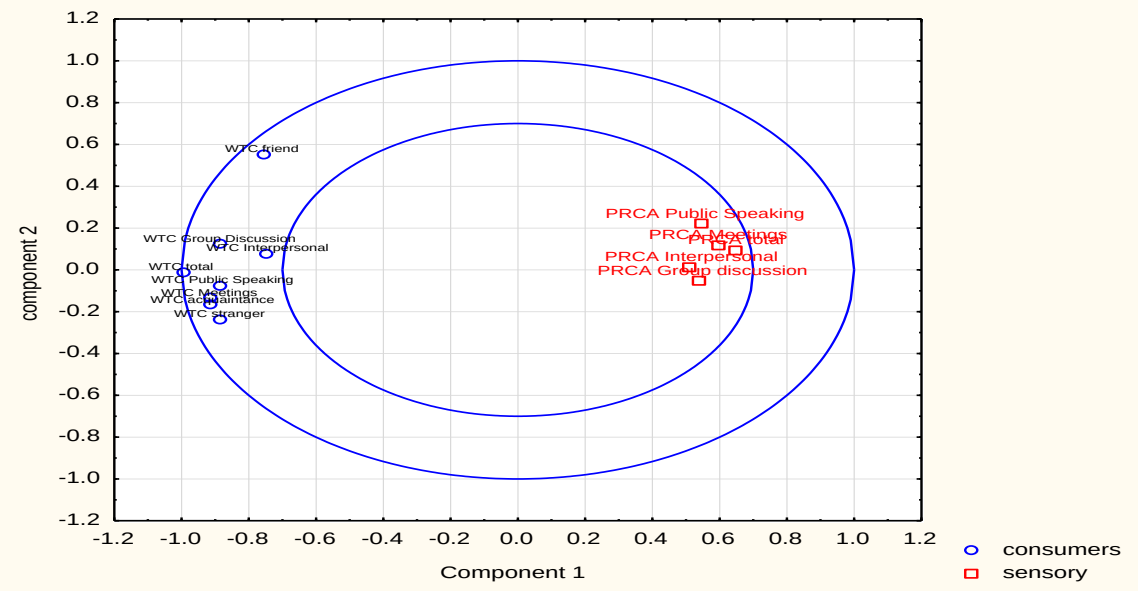
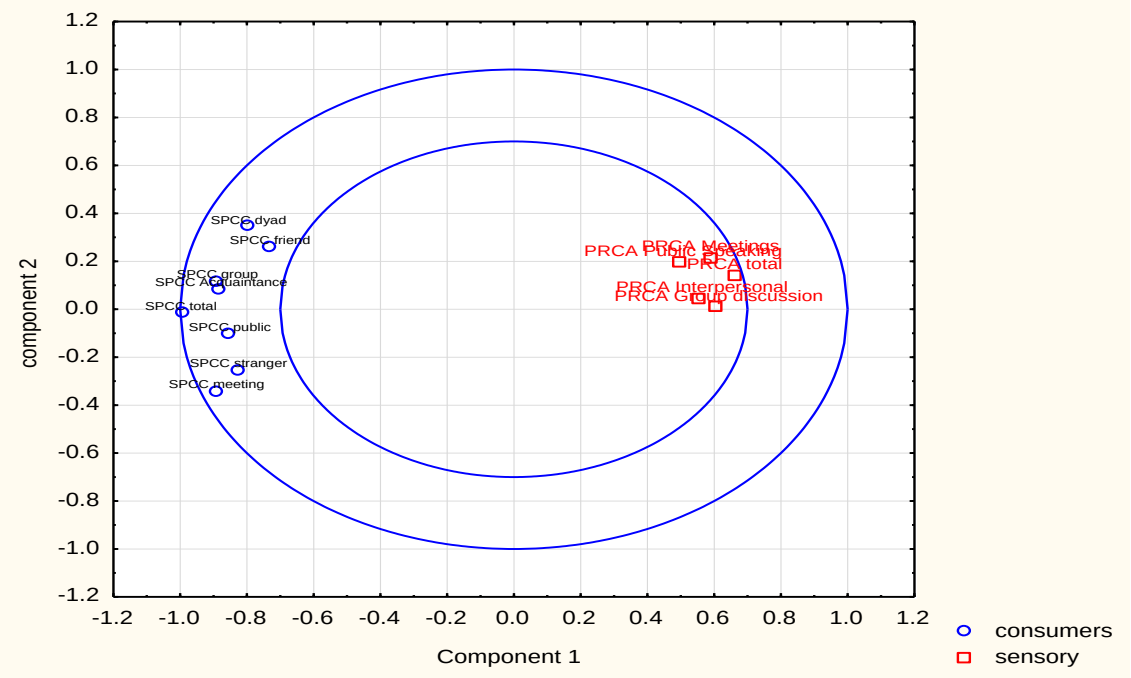


Figure 4.15 shows that in this study there is a negative correlation between communication apprehension (PRCA) and willingness to communicate (WTC). This contributes to the predictions of WTC. In other words, the higher the CA is, the lower WTC would be and conversely, lower CA indicates higher WTC.

As with PRCA and WTC, a negative relationship exists between apprehension (PRCA) and self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) as is shown in Figure 4.16.

Figure 4.16: PRCA vs SPCC



Higher levels of communication apprehension are associated with lower levels of self-perceived competence and lower levels of CA with higher perceptions of communication competence.

Figure 4.17: SPCC vs WTC

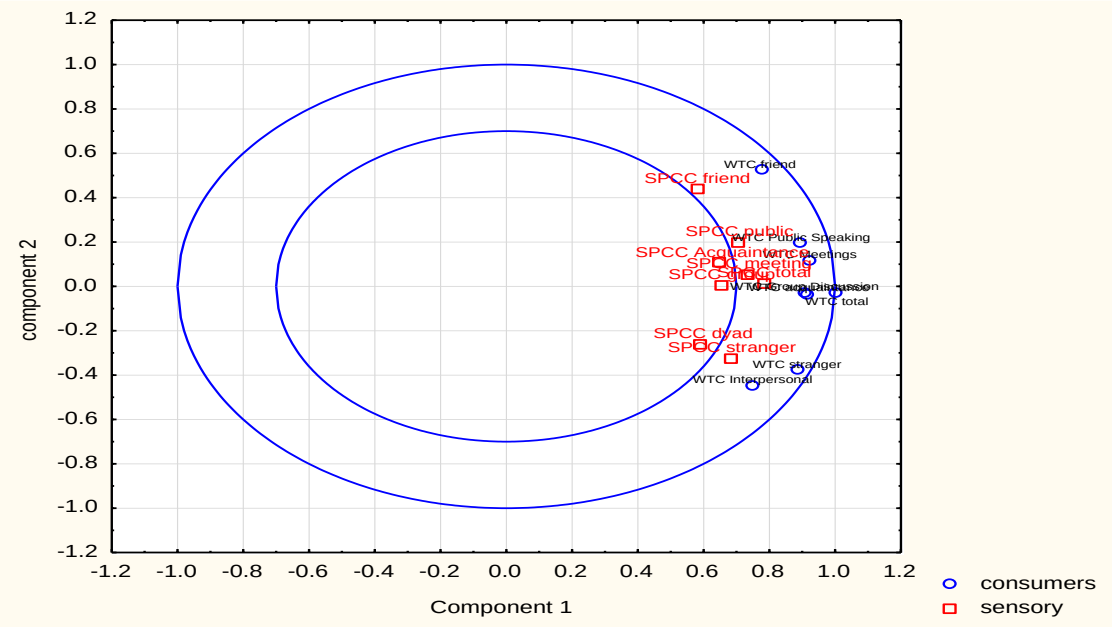


Figure 4.17 above confirms the findings of previous studies suggesting positive correlations between SPCC and WTC. As can be seen in the overlapping scatter plots, higher perceptions of communication competence will most probably lead to higher levels of WTC.

4.5 DISCUSSION OF THE QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The discussion of the results of the various surveys must be done with the quantitative sub-question which this chapter aims to answer in mind. The quantitative sub-question was: To what extent do FP student teachers experience change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

As discussed in Section 4.1 the four self-report survey measures were administered in an attempt to address the above-mentioned quantitative sub-question. Change in perception about communication behaviour in general is very broad and the use of the four self-report survey measures helped to narrow the focus to measure the perceptions of student teachers[37] of their nonverbal immediacy (NI), communication apprehension (CA), willingness to communicate (WTC) as well as their self-perceived communication competence (SPCC). Whilst acknowledging that the own perception of student teachers about their skill is not necessarily a true reflection of actual competence, it does help to predict possible patterns of approach or avoidance behaviours related to communication.

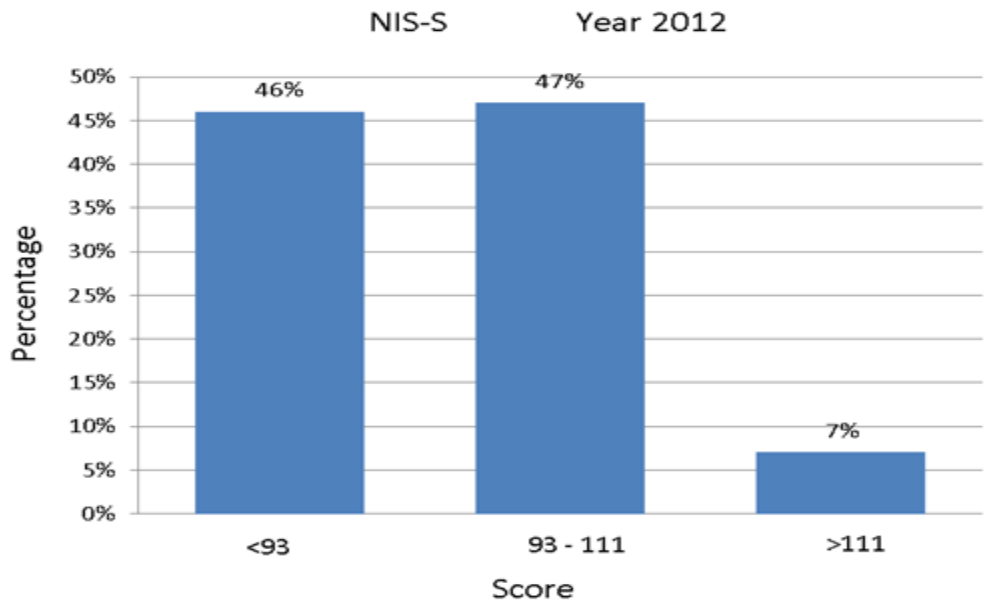
The following sub-sections present an interpretation of the results of the quantitative data. Section 4.5.1 addresses nonverbal immediacy, followed by a discussion regarding communication apprehension in section 4.5.2. The clear association between SPCC and WTC suggests that these measures will have similar effects on the communication behaviours of student teachers. In an attempt to avoid repetition of the interpretation of the data related to student teacher behaviours, these two concepts will be addressed simultaneously in Section 4.5.3.

4.5.1 Nonverbal immediacy self-report (NIS-S)

Nonverbal immediacy is very important teacher behaviour. It is clear from the data analysis in Section 4.3.1 that the perceptions of student teachers about their levels of nonverbal immediacy did not change over time.

[37] In the previous sections of this chapter, I used the term respondents to comply with the conventions of reporting on quantitative data. However, I feel it is more appropriate to refer to the respondents as student teachers to discuss the implications of the results for their very specific context.

Figure 4.18 NIS-S: 2012[38]



As is evident from Figure 4.18 the proportion of Foundation Phase student teachers who scored low remained substantial (46%). Furthermore, a very small proportion of students reported high levels of nonverbal immediacy. As discussed in Section 2.3.2 people who are nonverbally non-immediate tend to show/use limited nonverbal behaviours, in other words, they refrain from engaging in behaviours that signal availability for interpersonal communication (McCroskey and Richmond 1996). For example, they seldom gesture when speaking, tend to be less expressive when speaking and their body positions may appear tense and stiff. They often refrain from making direct eye contact with people and tend to look over or away from people when speaking to them. They also often tend to move away from people and in doing so increase the physical distance between them and the other people involved in the interaction. Nonverbally non-immediate individuals usually refrain from touching other people (Richmond 2002b).

The fact that such a high proportion of FP student teachers view themselves as nonverbally non-immediate has important implications for their development as competent classroom communicators. Although nonverbal immediacy is described as an effective teaching behaviour in all classrooms, one can argue that it is relatively more important in the Foundation Phase, because it is here that the foundation for learning is laid in the form of

[38] The Y-axis represents the percentage of respondents in each group and the x-axis the norms for the low/average/high groups as suggested by McCroskey. This interpretation can be applied to all other histograms in the chapter.

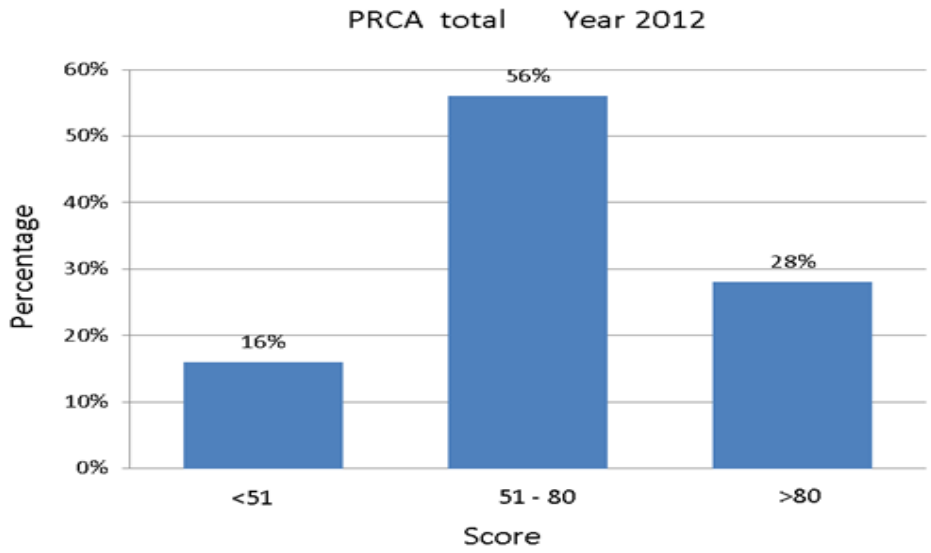
activities like working on the carpet, close contact when developing writing and reading skills, etc. Teachers need to create trusting environments that are inviting to learners and that encourage learning. Whilst the data do not imply that these student teachers are not caring and gentle, it shows that they engage in very limited nonverbal immediacy which can be interpreted as being or being perceived as distant and uninviting.

The results of the longitudinal measurement of nonverbal immediacy show that it is most probably the case that one's perception of own level of nonverbal engagement stays constant over time. These student teachers do not feel nonverbally more immediate in the fourth year than they felt right at the start of their studies, implying that their perception of their level of nonverbal immediacy did not change as a result of the degree programme. If such behaviour needs to be inculcated, specific interventions are needed, since student teachers do not appear to 'pick up' such behaviour in the course of either their studies or specifically their teaching practice sessions.

4.5.2 Personal report of communication apprehension (PRCA – 24)

From Figure 4.19, below, it is evident that 56% of the student teachers in this study experience normal levels of apprehension related to communication and 28% of them are highly apprehensive about communication. This is a higher proportion than what is presented as the 'norm' in the literature as Wrench *et al.* (2008) indicate that generally about 15% to 20% of a population experience high levels of apprehension related to communication.

Figure 4.19: Total CA (2012)



Although the reason for the increased proportion in this study is not clear, one can argue that it points to the fact that student teachers who are more apprehensive about communication specifically choose teaching in the Foundation Phase as a career, instead of the Intermediate and Senior Phase. Due to the fact the CA often influences the amount of talk a person engages in an increase in CA often results in less talk. Wrench *et al.* (2008:74) note that "teachers who are low talkers prefer the lower elementary grades and preschool to secondary and college teaching". This may be because teaching young children is less likely to garner direct and professional evaluations from students than does teaching older children and adults. This could be a factor that explains why a larger proportion of this group are highly apprehensive. High levels of CA might be the cause why they choose to work with the younger learners. It can then be argued that high CA affects the career choice of teachers.

The effect of CA on the speaking behaviours of individuals is well documented (Section 2.3.2.2). It determines not only the quantity but also the quality of communication (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). There is a negative correlation between the level of CA and the quantity and quality of communication. Allen and Bourhis (1996:216) claim that a person with high CA levels would not perform communication activities skilfully and that such a person would talk less often. The implicit assumption is that the anxiety experienced by an individual is evident in the behaviour that they exhibit and it is therefore important to consider the impact of CA on various manifestations of communication behaviour, such as

interpersonal and instructional communication behaviours. A meta-analysis of various studies on CA shows a negative correlation between an individual's level of CA and actual communication skills (Allen & Bourhis 1996: 220). However, the correlation for quantity of behaviour is lower than the correlation for quality. This means that whilst CA is not necessarily indicative of actual competence, there is evidence that CA affects the quality of the communication activity more than the quantity.

Fordham and Gabbin (1996:89) explain that CA can prevent an individual with adequate communication skills from engaging in effective communication. It is not always possible to distinguish between an apprehensive and an incompetent communicator. An incompetent communicator does not possess the necessary skills to engage in effective communication. Such a person may, for example, have a limited vocabulary or could be communicating in a second language. In contrast, highly apprehensive people can communicate, even though they do not feel comfortable, but they may choose to avoid such situations. It is, however, also true that a person who may not take pleasure in engaging in communication, could do so frequently and effectively.

High levels of CA generally influence communication behaviours in three ways (see Section 2.3.2.2); people with high levels of CA tend to disrupt or withdraw or avoid the interaction completely. This is particularly significant in this study, because the apprehension could potentially affect the student teacher's performance in class during teaching practice in general, but also during evaluation of their lessons. It could also affect the relationship between the student teacher and the mentor teacher. This will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.6.

4.5.3 Willingness to communicate (WTC) & Self-perceived communication competence (SPCC)

People who are willing to communicate and who feel competent about their communication generally enjoy interacting with people (Wrench *et al.* 2008). They have the ability to initiate and sustain communication and do so often. Communication competence does not necessarily reflect actual ability or skill, but it has an impact on the person's willingness to communicate

in general, as well as in specific contexts or with specific people (McCroskey 1997). Therefore, people who perceive their own communication competence as low are less likely to be very willing to enter into situations that require dedicated communication such as the communication situation of the student teacher during teaching practice.

People who perceive themselves to be highly competent communicators in general or in specific contexts will possibly be more willing to engage in interpersonal communication and will also sustain interactions for longer. In other words, high WTC and high SPCC contribute to what can be described as 'high' talking behaviours. Similarly, people who are low in their WTC and who believe that they are not competent often behave in such a way that they can be described as 'low' talkers. Figures 4.20 and 4.21 below present the results from the final wave of data collection of WTC and SPCC in 2012.

Figure 4.20: Total WTC (2012)

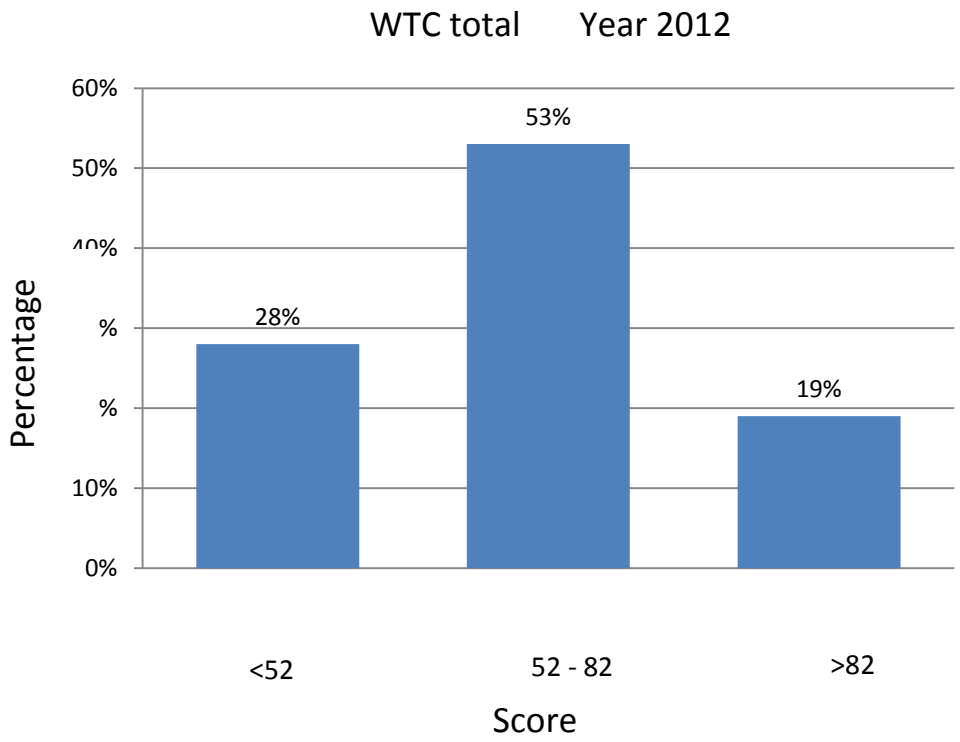


Figure 4.20 indicates that 28% of student teachers remained unwilling to communicate in general. The average range represented the majority (53%) and only 19% of the group indicated after four years that they were generally highly willing to communicate.

Figure 4.21: Total SPCC (2012)

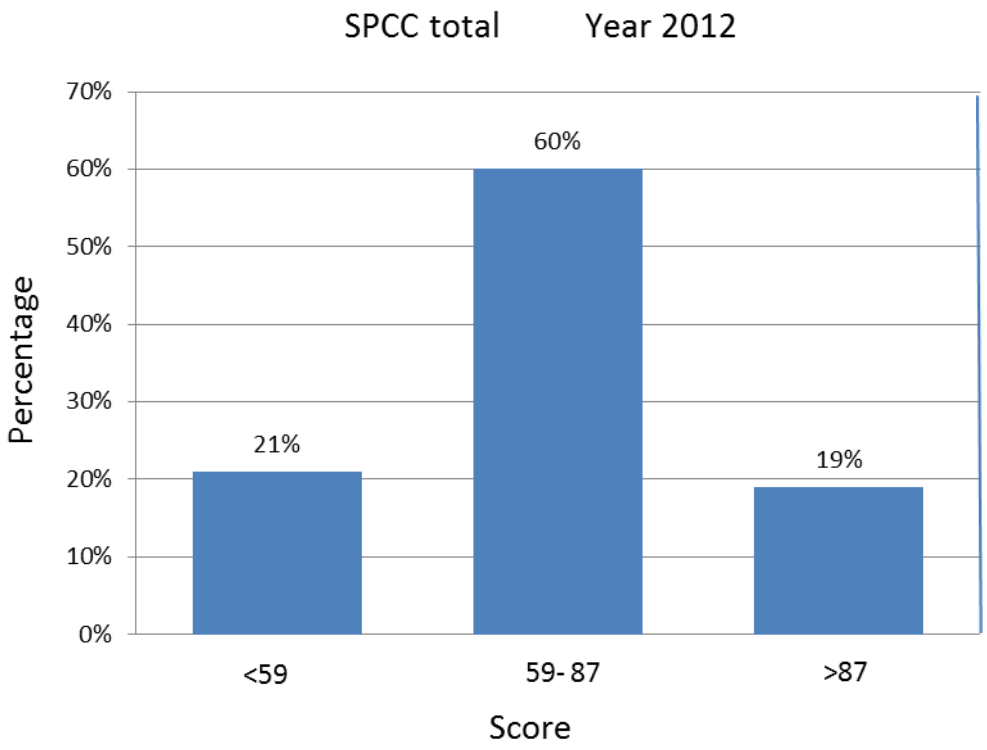


Figure 4.21 indicates that after four years 21% of student teachers in this study still had a negative perception of their communication competence. Furthermore, 19% indicated that they had high SPCC and 60% of the group indicated that they had average SPCC. This is after the initial improvement between the first and second years as discussed in Section 4.2.4. What is noteworthy is the fact that after four years more than a quarter of student teachers in this study reported low levels of WTC and more than a fifth perceived themselves not to be competent communicators.

The results show that there was a slight shift in student teachers' perception about their level of SPCC from the first to the second year. Thereafter, however, it remained relatively constant over time. This means that in the fourth year of study student teachers perceived themselves to be as competent as they had been in the second year of study. A number of factors may explain this shift. Firstly, student teachers may have entered the degree programme feeling generally slightly unsure of themselves, but from the second year they may have felt more confident. Secondly, it could be that they had had limited previous exposure to communicating in a variety of contexts, such as group discussions, meetings, etc.,

prior to their entrance into the degree programme. By the time the second set of data was collected all student teachers had completed eight weeks of teaching practice in schools and the interaction in the classroom with learners and mentor teachers could have contributed to the fact that they felt more secure about their communication abilities. What is interesting and noteworthy though, is the fact that after the second year there was no further change.

Furthermore, their levels of WTC in general did not change over time and after four years they were equally willing or unwilling to communicate. This could indicate that even though these student teachers participated in eight weeks of teaching practice per year, it had no real impact on their levels of WTC or SPCC.

More than 25% of the student teachers can in general be described as unwilling to communicate and after four years of regular exposure to communication activities during teaching practice, as well as in other subjects in the B Ed degree programme, only 19% of student teachers perceived themselves to be highly competent communicators. These findings have important implications for teacher education which ought to be considered when trying to understanding how these particular student teachers learn to teach. The degree to which a student teacher is willing to interact in classroom communication is an important factor in her development as student teacher, because it affects, firstly, important interpersonal relationships with mentor teachers as well as learners, and secondly, it affects her teaching style which could influence the evaluation of her teaching skills. This will be discussed in detail in Section 4.6.

Therefore, to answer the quantitative research sub-question which was posed at the beginning of this chapter (Section 4.1) the following statements can be made:

NIS-S: The student teachers' self-reported levels of *nonverbal immediacy* did not change over the course of the four-year degree programme.

PRCA: There were very slight changes in the levels of *communication apprehension* of these student teachers over time. This means that if one is highly apprehensive in general one, is most likely to remain highly apprehensive over time. There were no changes in the

perceptions of student teachers regarding their levels of CA related to public speaking contexts. There was a slight improvement in the level of CA related to interpersonal contexts, although, it is still statistically noticeable at 10%, however not significant at 5% ($p = 0.07$).

WTC: Student teachers did not perceive themselves to be more *willing to communicate* in general after four years. Furthermore, they also did not change their perceptions of their levels of WTC related to public speaking or interpersonal contexts. Furthermore, there was an improvement in their level of WTC with strangers; however, there was no change in their level of WTC regarding communication with acquaintances.

SPCC: There was an increase in levels of *self-perceived communication competence* of student teachers between the first and second year and thereafter no further changes occurred. This trend was noticeable not only for total SPCC, but also for SPCC across various contexts as well as various receiver types.

4.6 AGGREGATING THE RESULTS

The classroom environment is by nature a communication driven environment and the communication behaviours or the perception of the quality thereof, influences student teachers on various levels, such as their relationships with others, their teaching style, as well as the evaluation of their teaching practice. The nature of this interpersonal relationship will also possibly affect the level of learning of the student teacher because the teaching practice sessions are extensions of the degree programme during which the student teacher has the opportunity to, with the support of the mentor teacher, apply theoretical principles in practice.

This section aims to synthesise and discuss the results presented earlier in this chapter. These results should be interpreted within a specific context and therefor it is important to refer back to section 1.3 which explains the nature of the system of the Foundation Phase teaching practice at the Western Cape university where this study was conducted and highlights the roles of the various parties involved.

4.6.1 Communication behaviours and interpersonal relationships in the classroom

In the development of the student teacher to become a teacher, the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher is of critical importance. It is this relationship that supports the development of teaching skills and classroom communication behaviours; the 'situated learning' that takes place by means of 'peripheral participation' (Lave & Wenger 1991). Furthermore, the relationship between student teacher and learners is also important as the student teacher needs to create a trusting learning environment for the learners. The following sub-sections will discuss firstly the importance of the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher, and secondly of the relationship between student teacher and learners in the classroom.

4.6.1.1 The relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher

The *nonverbal behaviour* of the student teacher[39] determines the initial steps in the development of the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher. Previously (Section 2.3.4), it was explained that nonverbal behaviours are relatively more important than verbal immediacy behaviours because they act as a frame for verbal immediacy behaviours. In other words, if the student teacher's nonverbal immediacy is so low that it does little to lessen the physical and psychological distance between her and the mentor teacher, it may have a profound impact on the development of their interpersonal relationship. Literature, as discussed in Section 2.3.4, suggests that a person's nonverbal immediacy behaviours have an impact on how others choose to react towards that person (Mehrabian 1981). Comfortable and meaningful interaction is important for the development of a responsive relationship. Each verbal interaction is affected by nonverbal behaviours that add a dimension of affective meaning. This influences the interpretation of the message itself, but also comments on the nature of the relationship (Andersen 1985). If the student teacher appears distant and removed from the mentor teacher it seems quite natural that this will (a) affect the behaviour of the mentor teacher and (b) possibly also the impression that the mentor teacher forms of the student teacher.

[39] Although it is logical that the mentor teacher's level of NIS would also affect this relationship, it falls outside the scope of this study. The focus in this study is on the student teacher and the effect of her communication behaviours on teaching and learning. This is also the case for the rest of the discussion.

It is suggested that if highly immediate people are viewed in a positive light and if high levels of immediacy are considered to be a good and positive influence on relationships, then low levels of immediacy may have the opposite effect. Greater immediacy improves communication between people (McCroskey & Richmond 1996) and, therefore, lesser immediacy might lessen the quality and the quantity of the interactions between student teachers and mentor teachers. However, their nonverbal communication behaviours may prevent this from happening. The learning process should happen through dialogue and discussions. If the nonverbal behaviour of the student teacher is greatly nonimmediate, it may well hamper the progression of these discussions, and inevitably the student teachers' learning. For almost half of the participants in this study, this may be a reality.

The level of CA of the student teacher will also influence the way in which relationships develop. The classroom is communicative by nature, which implies that almost everything that takes place inside the classroom is driven and directed by communication. Student teachers who have high levels of CA will be less likely to interact freely with mentor teachers. More than a quarter of the student teachers in this study (Section 4.4.2) are categorised as high CA, specifically with regard to communication in interpersonal situations. This is particularly significant in the classroom situation where student teachers have to operate in close interpersonal contexts with mentor teachers. As mentioned earlier, the fact that the mentor teacher is also one of the evaluators, complicates the development of the interpersonal relationship even further.

According to Wrench *et al.* (2008), highly apprehensive individuals will be less likely to enter into communication rich discussions. This might mean that student teachers are less likely to have important conversations, such as those that will allow the student teacher to (a) form an impression of the environment and to (b) get the required lesson topics and the necessary support from the mentor teacher. The initial interaction between the student teacher and the mentor teacher also affects the nature of the relationship which has to develop between them. Student teachers are, due to the natural power-relations in the classroom, of a lower status than the mentor teachers and a natural distance exists between the two parties. This natural distance should lessen over time as the parties get to know each other and the

interpersonal relationship develops. However, in cases where student teachers are highly apprehensive about communication in general and about interpersonal communication in particular, they may struggle to communicate with the mentor teacher and this will naturally constrain the nature of the developing relationship and prevent the distance between them from narrowing. Depending on the level of apprehension many student teachers in this group may prefer to avoid discussions that could potentially aid their development. The fact that they are placed with a different teacher for each of their practical teaching sessions means that they have to establish and build a new relationship every time. This may be one of the reasons why the confidence that comes from an established relationship with a common understanding does not seem to change over four years.

Wrench *et al.* (2009) raise a potentially controversial, but relevant point regarding highly apprehensive people. They claim that highly apprehensive people are perceived to be unassertive and introverted with a low level of tolerance for disagreement and that they also come across as less innovative. Although this may seem like a gross generalisation, it is important to consider in this context. Should the highly apprehensive student teacher have the qualities described by Wrench *et al.* (2009) or merely seem to have them, it would negatively affect the nature of the development of the relationship. First impressions are generally the basis upon which a relationship is formed. If the student teacher is highly apprehensive and does not engage in communication, or seems to be unassertive and not open to criticism, for example, the mentor teacher may have a negative impression from the beginning as these qualities are not associated with good teaching and professionalism. Since many student teachers' first jobs often follow on the favourable impression they made at a particular school, such a negative impression could have further negative effects for them.

WTC and SPCC also influence the development of the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher. Relationships are developed through mutual interaction and student teachers who do not generally engage in interaction due to low levels of WTC and SPCC may struggle to establish and maintain interactions. This will consequently negatively affect the development of the relationship with their mentor teachers. Individuals who are generally not WTC or feel that they lack competence in this regard tend to avoid communication-based

situations and according to Wrench *et al.* (2008:72) "respond less positively to others who attempt to initiate interaction with them".

Due to the structure of this B Ed degree programme (Section 1.3), it is impossible to avoid situations that require communication and interaction. However, in the case of more than 25% of this group their low WTC must impact on the pace of the development of the interpersonal relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher. It is human nature to interpret an unwillingness to engage as negative. It is therefore possible that the mentor teacher may form an initial negative impression of the attitude or even personality of the student teacher based on her communication behaviours. Without quality interaction, the relationship between the student teacher and mentor teacher is less likely to develop fast enough to be meaningful. Without a meaningful interpersonal relationship it is more difficult to develop a positive workplace relationship. This will affect the development of student teachers' learning to become a teacher.

It is important to note that people often have negative perceptions of those who are considered "low talkers" as Wrench *et al.* (2008:75) explain: "Research has found people to have a stereotype of a quiet person as less competent and less intelligent." Whilst this is obviously an incorrect perception, it does mean that a student teacher with low WTC will take longer to convince people that this stereotypical impression is incorrect. Furthermore, the perception that one person has of another affects the quality of the interpersonal relationship that develops between them. If the student teacher therefore, has low SPCC and low WTC related to interpersonal contexts she may possibly engage in less talk and consequently, unknowingly, harm the development of a meaningful interpersonal relationship with the mentor teacher which could, in turn, affect her development as a teacher.

Hopefully, with time this can be rectified and the mentor teacher will realise that the student teacher is, in fact, not lazy or unwilling to learn, but rather not WTC. However, there is also no guarantee that this will happen, especially because time is of the essence here. As explained in Section 1.3, teaching practice takes place in two sets of four weeks. This is a relatively short period for this relationship to develop from impersonal to interpersonal.

Student teachers who are more WTC may find it easier to develop a meaningful relationship with the mentor teacher in such a short time.

The results indicate that after the slight shift in total SPCC between the first and second year, the group's level of SPCC remained relatively stable. The change from first to second year can be the result of low confidence in ability/interest due to lack of prior exposure to demanding communication environments. Due to the experience the gained in the first year, it seems reasonable to suggest that the initial lack of confidence may subside in the second year. The fact that the SPCC of the group remained stable after the second year, could imply that more exposure to teaching practice sessions, group work and presentations do not influence their perceptions of their own communication abilities. More student teachers have low levels of interpersonal WTC and SPCC than low levels of total WTC and total SPCC. After four years 35% of the group still scored low regarding WTC and 25% regarding SPCC in the context of interpersonal communication. It can be inferred that student teachers who are unwilling to engage in interpersonal interactions may battle to form trusting relationships with their mentor teachers.

The level of WTC and SPCC in relation to type of receiver is another factor that may potentially influence the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher. When the student teacher and mentor teacher meet for the first time they are strangers and initially communication with strangers is of an impersonal nature. It seems natural to expect that people may not be WTC with strangers. Results from this study with regard to WTC and SPCC relating to strangers and acquaintances paint a different picture. There was an improvement in the SPCC and WTC of student teachers between the first and second years about possible communication with strangers. However, even though there was an increase in their level of SPCC related to interaction with acquaintances, this was not mirrored by the levels of WTC. In other words, an improved SPCC with acquaintances did not lead to an improvement in the WTC with acquaintances. However, in both cases, no statistically significant changes occurred between the second and final years.

What is particularly relevant for this study is the fact that, in general, student teachers seem more willing to communicate with strangers than with acquaintances (Section 4.2.3.3), and

they also feel more competent to do so (4.2.4.3). Scores for WTC with strangers were average, whereas scores for WTC with acquaintances were also average but they were particularly low in the range. Scores for SPCC with strangers were slightly below average and scores for SPCC with acquaintances were considerably below average. The results for this specific group are particularly interesting in the final year: 44% scored low, 47% average and only 9% high in their WTC with acquaintances. This means that 44% of the group are basically unwilling to initiate and/or continue interaction with people considered as acquaintances. The SPCC measure followed a similar pattern: 25% scored low; 56% average and only 19% indicated that they feel competent about interacting with strangers. These results contradict McCroskey *et al.* (2006) who claim that most people are generally less WTC with strangers. While the reason for the results in this case is not clear, it is particularly significant in this context of teaching practice which takes place in classrooms with mentor teachers from whom student teachers should learn about teaching. It is likely that if these student teachers are faced with the prospect of communicating with the mentor teacher who is regarded as an acquaintance, they will most probably not be very actively involved in discussions and this may affect the quality and the duration of the discussions negatively.

These results are also important considering that, as mentioned previously, student teachers are placed with new mentor teachers in a different school each year. It is important for the learning experience of the student teacher that she interacts with the mentor teacher so that a good interpersonal relationship can be established as soon as possible during the first session of teaching practice. This raises an interesting point regarding the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher which needs further investigation. If student teachers seem more WTC with strangers than with acquaintances and by default over time students teacher and mentor teacher become acquaintances, how will this relationship be developed and maintained?

4.6.1.2 The relationship between student teacher and learner

Classroom communication functions on two levels, namely the interpersonal and the instructional (see Section 2.1). Therefore the interpersonal relationship between teacher and learners is another relationship that is important in teaching and learning (Frymier & Houser 2000).

As discussed in Section 2.3.5.2, teacher immediacy is an important factor in effective teaching and learning. This current study placed more emphasis on the nonverbal aspect of immediacy, because it is particularly important in the classroom setting. As mentioned earlier, it serves a very specific purpose – it lessens the gap between teacher and learner and helps to create a comfortable learning environment. Due to the interpersonal nature of the teacher-learner relationship, it is important to consider the role of immediacy-gaining communication behaviours and their effect on teaching and learning. It is not only important to consider teaching methods, it is also useful to understand the purpose of immediacy-gaining communication behaviours. Learners view more immediate teachers in a more positive light (Wrench *et al.* 2009). It stands to reason that if learners like their teachers they may enjoy the learning experience and be eager to participate more and eventually learn and retain more (see Section 2.3.4). Furthermore, learners need to trust their teachers. Teachers who are not immediate are often perceived negatively and even as teachers who misbehave, and they are often described as ineffective communicators (Thweatt & McCroskey 1996).

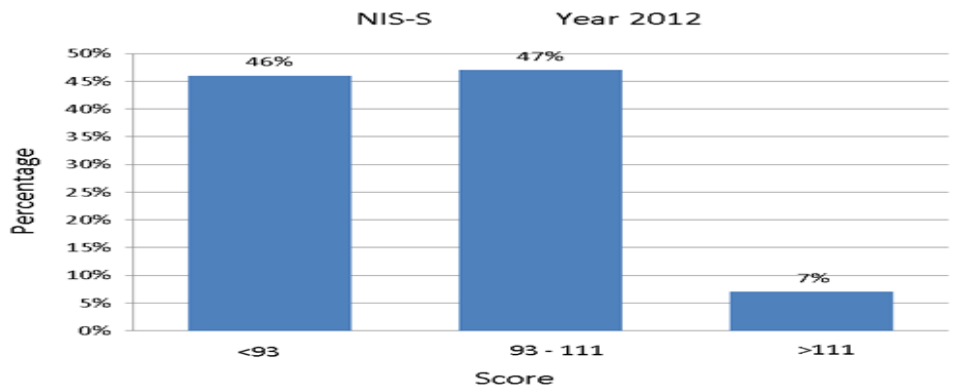
The level of CA may not have such a pronounced impact on the interpersonal relationship development between teacher and learners, because of the obvious difference in status between them. Teachers may feel less threatened by young learners and their behavioural responses related to CA might not manifest so explicitly (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). WTC, however, is quite likely to affect the development of the relationship between teacher and learner. Teachers with low total WTC and specifically low interpersonal WTC will probably take longer to form strong relationships with learners, if at all. Low talkers, in other words people with low WTC and SPCC, generally have limited interest in IPC and will therefore most probably not encourage it in the classroom (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). Interpersonal communication helps to develop relationships and one can thus argue that limited interpersonal communication will also hinder the development of an effective relationship between student teacher and learners. Teaching younger learners is possibly less intimidating because they are slightly easier to control and they are less likely to challenge the content knowledge of the teacher, which may be the reason why so many of this group of Foundation Phase student teachers who are highly apprehensive about communication chose to study Foundation Phase teaching. McCroskey, Richmond and McCroskey (2006:88) claim that younger learners "tend to think that all adults are experts". This could be a contributing factor

to the slightly larger proportion of this group who are highly apprehensive. As mentioned earlier (Section 2.2.3.2), in general 15 to 20 percent of a population can be regarded as highly apprehensive about communication. However, in this study it was a greater proportion (about 28%) who reported high levels of total CA. It can therefore be inferred that high levels of CA may affect the career choice of teachers.

4.6.2 Communication behaviours and teaching style

The communication behaviour of the student teacher manifests in her teaching style. The teaching style, in turn, influences the teaching and learning in the classroom. No two teachers teach in exactly the same manner. It is important to acknowledge that there are different styles, e.g. a more formal versus a more informal interactive style. Certain student teachers lean more towards the one style and others more towards the other. In the Foundation Phase teaching ought to be more interactive and focussed on including the learners in the learning. One can argue that older learners, such as high school learners and university students, can cope with a more formal, less interactive lecture teaching style, although it may not be the most efficient. Younger learners need a more interactive approach and need to be included in the learning. This context, therefore, requires communication of a more interpersonal nature from the student teacher. Low levels of nonverbal immediacy will affect the teacher style of the student teachers. As pointed out in Section 2.3.2.1, nonverbal immediacy is a crucial teaching behaviour. Although it is an important factor in most learning environments, it is even more so in the Foundation Phase because younger learners need to experience a warm and caring environment in order to trust and learn from the teacher.

Figure 4.22 NIS-S: 2012

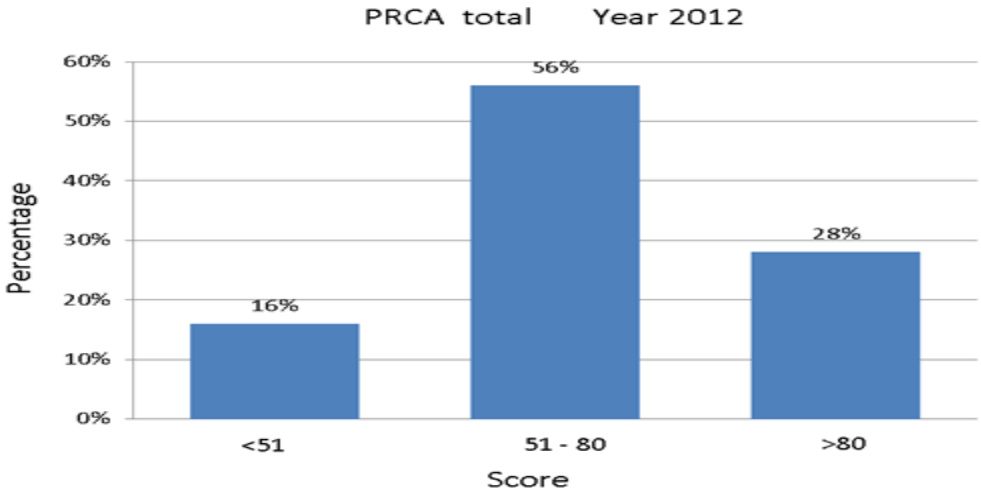


From Figure 4.22 it is evident that 46% of the student teachers in this study reported that they perceive themselves to be nonverbally non-immediate. Student teachers who are nonverbally non-immediate are less likely to display behaviours which signal approachability. They will, for example, smile less often than immediate teachers and may prefer to increase the physical distance between them and the learners by choosing to remain standing when learners are seated on the mat. Richmond (2002) confirms that they will most probably prefer seating arrangements that will limit interaction or may prefer to teach from behind the desk.

The classroom is a communicative context. Moreover, almost all teaching and learning activities necessitate interaction between student teacher and learners. Although the student teacher directs the learning, learner participation during the lesson is important. This implies that the student teacher ought to create opportunities during lessons where learners can contribute to the lesson and interact with the student teacher. However, highly CA individuals regard communicative interactions as performances and as a one-sided 'talking to' (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield 1993:198) and such student teachers may not be comfortable to encourage and maintain classroom discussion and learners remain passive listeners and not active participants.

The teaching style of the student teacher is also affected by her level of CA. High CA student teachers view all communication activities as presentations where the sender is distanced from the receiver (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield 1993: 198). They generally focus on the 'evaluative' aspect of such an encounter and are more concerned that the receiver will judge what is said and how it is delivered. Figure 4.23 indicates that this may be true for 28% of the student teachers in this study.

Figure 4.23: Total CA (2012)



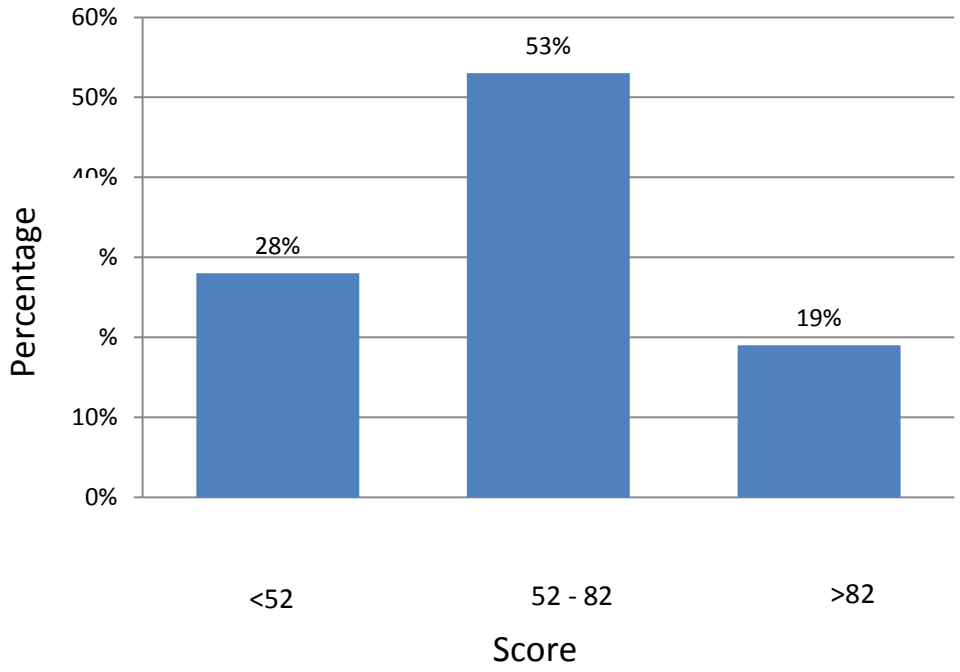
In other words, it may be that more than a quarter of this group will engage in a teaching style that is more teacher directed and in which they see themselves as the main communicator who talks to the learners. The difference between 'talking with' and 'talking to' lies in the process of communication. In the case of "talking with" someone, the receiver is a participant who interacts in the form of a communicative activity. However, when one talks "to" someone, the interactive nature of communication is prevented and the receiver becomes a mere passive listener (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield 1993:198). High levels of CA contribute to a more teacher-centred approach and a lesser learner-centred approach. Wrench *et al.* (2008) agree that telling someone something is not the same as communicating it. Abnormally highly apprehensive student teachers may revert to a position where they merely transmit information, rather than engaging with learners to develop a deeper understanding.

In contrast, student teachers with lower levels of CA are more concerned about the overall understanding of the message. They regard all communication as interactive opportunities during which they can facilitate deeper understanding of the message. These specific characteristics reflect the difference between teacher-centred and learner or learning-centred lessons.

The teaching style of student teachers is also influenced by their levels of WTC and SPCC. Student teachers who view themselves as competent communicators have an affinity for

communication in general and will most likely find it relatively easy to adopt an interactive teaching style. Figure 4.24 indicates that only 19% of the student teachers in this study regard themselves as highly WTC. One can thus assume that this group enjoys communication and will encourage it in their classrooms.

Figure 4.24: Total WTC (2012)



Student teachers who perceive themselves as incompetent communicators will most likely be less interested in communication and seem less active as communicators. According to figure 4.24 quite a significant part of this group remained unwilling to communicate (28%). This this may translate into a more formal, less interactive teaching style. It could also affect the expectations that student teachers have regarding the communication levels of learners. Students who feel less competent about communication in general may have more empathy with learners who are not competent yet, but they would most probably also have lower expectations of what learners are capable of. Student teachers who are 'low' talkers will probably make less use of class discussion to foster learning, because they may find it difficult to maintain two-way discussions that allow for greater learner participation. It seems reasonable to suspect that such student teachers will probably display a more presentation-based or 'talking to' teaching style.

Student teachers who are more WTC and subsequently place more value on discussion to promote learning will probably encourage discussion and plan activities which allow for greater learner participation. Student teachers who are generally not WTC will most likely prefer a more presentation-based and more teacher-directed teaching style. Wrench *et al.* (2008) agree that people who are considered low talkers tend to avoid classes where participation is required and prefer lecture-type situations where the teacher does most of the talking and learners are expected to remain quiet. As will be explained in Section 5.5.3, there may be linkages between levels of WTC and levels of interaction in the classroom. Section 4.3.3.1 showed that in general this group of FP student teachers is relatively low in their WTC, and as Section 5.5.3 will show, one of the problem areas related to their clarity behaviours was their inability to include learners in lessons, which resulted in more teacher-directed lessons.

4.6.3 Communication behaviours and student teacher evaluation

As explained in Section 1.3, student teachers are evaluated by mentor teachers and external evaluators during each teaching practice session. The evaluation or assessment will most probably be affected by the students' communication behaviours, in other words their levels of NIS-S, CA, WTC and SPCC. A student teacher is expected to teach a number of lessons per day in the presence of the mentor teacher and the mentor teacher has to evaluate the student teacher's overall performance. This can create quite a stressful situation that resembles a public speaking context. In reality, teaching, especially in the Foundation Phase, does not require a lot of public speaking. Once in a while one might be required to address a group of people (other than the learners in the classroom), but this is not a key performance area of the profession at this level.

The requirements of the teaching practice process that takes place during the teaching practice session determines that criticism and disagreement are part and parcel of the process of improvement, of getting better at teaching. Highly apprehensive student teachers would possibly experience greater levels of anxiety related to teaching practice than student teachers who are low in their apprehension. Highly apprehensive student teachers may therefore find this learning experience less pleasant and possibly less valuable with regard to the learning that they are supposed to gain from such an experience.

The level of CA of student teachers will naturally affect their evaluation session. If it can be assumed that most people are to a greater or lesser extent slightly apprehensive about evaluation in general, it is more pronounced in the case of highly CA student teachers. The mark that is awarded for the specific lesson taught is already a subjective mark, because it is only a reflection of one person's impression of the ability of the student teacher for a single lesson of 30 to 40 minutes. For 28% of the Foundation Phase student teachers in this study the evaluation session may have been a threatening environment, more so than for their peers, because of their higher level of CA.

The fact remains that the majority of the student teachers reported average levels of WTC and slightly below average levels of SPCC in the context of public speaking while the minority reported low levels of WTC as public speaker. Also, student teachers experienced high levels of CA related to public speaking. Another interesting outcome is that statistically there was no change in the student teachers' view of WTC in the public speaking context over the four years and that the group average WTC for public speaking is above average.

When communicative acts are cognitively perceived as interactive and participatory in nature the communicator is more likely to enjoy the experience. Student teachers with low levels of CA generally enjoy interacting and often experience satisfaction after the presentation. In other words, student teachers who are not apprehensive about communicating may possibly look forward to the evaluation sessions and might even enjoy them. However, only 11% of the group would fall into this category. Returning to the observations by Wrench *et al.* (2009), the opposite is true of people who have low CA – they are often described more positively as extroverts who have high self-esteem, are assertive and more able to tolerate disagreement.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse and interpret the quantitative data gathered over a four-year period related to the classroom communication behaviours of FP student teachers over an extended period of time. The quantitative phase of the study focused specifically on developmental communication features, i.e. how the perceptions of student teachers regarding their own communication behaviour changed over time. Section 4.2 presented the analysis of the results of the various surveys, specifically focusing on the progression over time. Subsequently, Section 4.3 highlighted important correlations between the various surveys in order to strengthen the argument related to predictability, followed by the interpretation of the results in Section 4.4. Finally, Section 4.5 provided an aggregation of the results in order to highlight the implications of the findings for the student teacher.

The quantitative sub-question this chapter aimed to answer was: To what extent do FP student teachers experience growth/change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

As discussed in Section 4.5, results indicate that whilst some aspects of their communication profiles remained stable over the four years, other aspects did in fact change over time. Communication apprehension is a stable trait which is unlikely to change over time (see Section 2.2.3.2). In other words, student teachers who enter the degree programme highly apprehensive about communication in general will most likely also exit the programme as highly apprehensive individuals. This confirms previous findings in the literature, e.g. McCroskey *et al.* (2006).

Student teachers' perceptions of their nonverbal immediacy also did not change over the four years. Time in the classroom with the mentor teacher did therefore not change their perception of their nonverbal immediacy skills or the importance thereof. However, nonverbal immediacy can improve given the correct intervention (see Section 2.3.2). As it is clearly a critical teaching behaviour, it is important that the issue be addressed in teacher preparation curricula.

The SPCC of student teachers improved between the first and the second year, thereafter it remained stable. Levels of WTC did not change. This is an important result because it suggests that the B Ed degree programme possibly did not bring about these changes. It could simply be that the initial exposure to communication-rich situations gave these student teachers some practice which meant that they felt more competent and willing to interact. However, the fact is that from the second to the fourth year (with exposure to similar communication situations) these perceptions did not improve, raises further issues that warrant research.

The quantitative results presented in this chapter challenge the presumption that regular exposure to situations that require communicative interactions would change student teachers' perceptions, and that the perception they have of their ability would improve over four years. Whilst it is so that one's perception of one's communication competence does not relate to actual competence, research suggests that perception is most likely to mediate the level of interaction and subsequent exposure to situations where communication skills can be 'practised'. In other words, a negative perception of one's competence is likely to hinder possible improvement. The results also call into question the belief that situated learning is effective or that it transfers from one teaching context to the next, because the student teacher has to get used to new situations every year, and therefore starts anew every year.

CHAPTER FIVE:

QUALITATIVE RESULTS

The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires.

William Arthur Ward

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data on the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers. The quantitative analysis and interpretation, as discussed in Chapter 4, focused on the development of the self-perceived communication profile of student teachers over the four-year period. The qualitative data presented here relates to factors that influence the clarity of the lessons by student teachers, and to their immediacy behaviours in the classroom.

The following research questions guided the analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data:

Q1. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

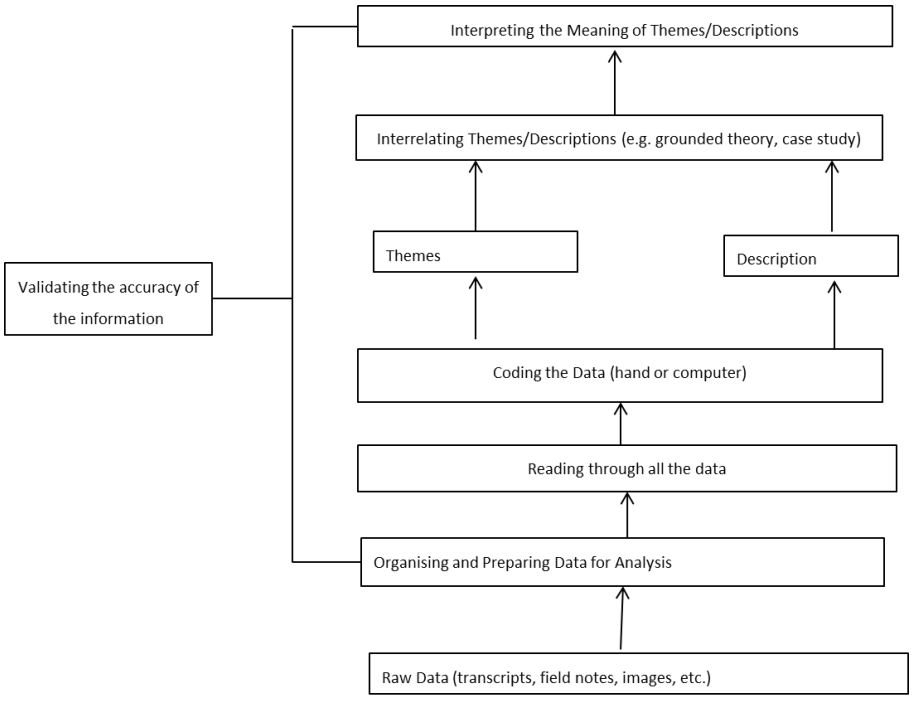
Q2. To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

The following section (5.2) describes the process followed in the analysis of the qualitative data. Thereafter follows the interpretation of the results; firstly as it relates to teacher clarity (Section 5.3) and secondly as it relates to teacher immediacy (Section 5.4).

5.2 THE PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative data analysis is a lengthy and iterative process and, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 152) there is seldom one single "right" manner in which to analyse the data. However, it is crucial that the process is clearly described, because as Henning *et al.* (2004:101) argue, it in is the process of the "analytical craftsmanship and the ability to capture understanding of the data in writing" that truly competent qualitative researchers prove their worth. The aim of qualitative data analysis is to make sense of the text (Creswell 2009), starting from a broad perspective by considering the whole data set and through continual analytical procedures moving towards a more in-depth understanding of the data. Creswell (2009) describes qualitative data analysis as a seemingly linear process but argues that the steps are, in fact, interactive, because as the analysis develops one has to return to previous steps and revise. This was also true for this study. I largely followed the bottom to top procedure of Creswell as illustrated in Figure 5.1 below, but continually moved back and forth between the different steps.

Figure 5.1 The qualitative data analysis process



Source: Creswell (2009:185)

The qualitative data for this study was collected from the evaluation reports written about specific lessons taught by student teachers. As explained in Chapter 3, these reports were written by teaching practice evaluators who had observed the lessons. Different external evaluators evaluate the student teachers[40] every year. It is the general practice at this university to ensure that the student teachers are evaluated by a variety of people so that the process is somewhat more objective. This implies, however, that progression over time is difficult to monitor because of the individual, and subjective, view of the external evaluators. For the purposes of this study, as explained in Section 1.3, I arranged with the management of the university to evaluate the same group of student teachers over the duration of the four-year period (2009 – 2012) in order to be in a better position to observe changes in their practice and/or behaviours.

The teaching practice evaluators for the Foundation Phase do not use a standardised form for the evaluation report. The overall performance of a student teacher for a year is discussed by the final evaluator and the mentor-teacher after the last lesson is taught. A standardised rubric is then completed by both mentor teacher and final evaluator. Evaluation reports of the observed lessons are written by evaluators during the observation of the lesson. Evaluators are advised to comment on the planning for the lessons, the execution of the lesson, behaviour management approach and style in general. In situations where a specific aspect of a lesson needs more attention, evaluators tend to focus on this aspect and as a result they may not comment on all areas.

Table 5.1 describes the procedure of qualitative data analysis that I followed during the analysis of the evaluation reports. The technical aspects are described in general, followed by an account of the various stages of analyses.

[40] The team of evaluators comprises of mainly of lecturers at the university, however, due to the large number of student teachers we often also employ retired lecturers and teachers, who bring a wealth of experience to the process (Fouché 2014).

Table 5.1 Qualitative data analysis: the process

TASKS	PROCESS	RATIONALE	RESULT/PRODUCT
Task 1	Organisation of data	To systematically file all qualitative data collected over the four year period	File containing all data filed according to student & year of study (± 240 reports)
Task 2	Data condensation	To reduce the data to a manageable data set	Reduced data set of ± 120 reports
Task 3	Initial reading & Memoing	To get a broad overview of all the data	1 page memo per report
Task 4	First Cycle analysis	Stage 1: To separate data into broad categories Stage 2: To code data sets according to low-inference descriptive labels Stage 3: To show similarities between the various reports related to clarity and immediacy in a FP classroom	Colour-coding on documents Codebook capturing all descriptive labels used Tables 5.2 & 5.3
Task 5	Second Cycle analysis	To transcribe all meaningful data according to the two main categories – clarity and immediacy To identify units of text which are meaningful in order to create codes for each data set	Spreadsheet per student teachers capturing comments relating to each category; comments listed by year
Task 6		To separate each data set into two broad categories: positive & negative	Spreadsheet indicating positive and negative comments for each data set

In most cases, each of the student teachers had four evaluations each year, which were filed systematically in order to ensure easy access (Task 1). Miles *et al.* (2014) suggest data condensation (Task 2) as the first step in qualitative data analyses. This is the "process of selecting, focussing, simplifying, abstracting, and/or transforming the data that appear on the full corpus" (Miles *et al.* 2014:12) in order to strengthen and focus the data. As explained in Section 3.8, as part of the data condensation (Task 2) two evaluation reports were analysed for each student teacher per year, my own evaluation report and one other[41]. The other evaluation report was selected based on the level of detail with regard to clarity and immediacy.

[41] See Section 3.8 for an explanation regarding the choice of evaluation report.

The qualitative analysis proved to be a lengthy and difficult process. I was very aware of the fact that codes should not be put on to the data, but that the data had to present the codes to me. However, I could not avoid the fact that there were pre-existing codes that had already been addressed in the literature. I started with what is generally described as the first step, namely to read all the evaluation reports thoroughly (Task 3). Thereafter all the evaluation reports were re-read, but this time a memo was written for each of the reports. Memoing is helpful because it gives the researcher a space for creativity. Two points became clear to me during the reading and memoing process: firstly, it was necessary to acknowledge the existence of the categories or labels that existed in the literature (keeping in mind that other categories may possibly emerge); and secondly, I had to address the issue that the evaluators did not use a standardised form.

5.2.1 First Cycle analysis

During the first cycle of analysis data were separated into chunks which were then coded as suggested by Miles *et al.* (2014). This was done by segmenting the data according to the two main broad categories, namely *clarity* and *immediacy*. Two additional categories that stood out were *behaviour management* and *advice that was given to the student*. These were included in the initial coding process. At this stage the use of a computer programme, such as AtlasTi, was considered to assist in the coding process, but I decided not to use this. All the reports were handwritten which meant that, if I were to use such a computer programme, all evaluations reports would have had to be retyped. In the interest of expediency, the evaluation reports were coded manually using different colour highlighters for each of the labels[42].

Although the exercise of broad coding was interesting, the success of the process at this stage was not certain. The broad codes ultimately indicated that in general evaluators commented on behaviours relating to the execution of the lesson (clarity), the style of the student teacher (immediacy) and student teachers' behaviour management strategies. In addition, certain evaluators gave advice while others did not.

[42] See Addendum 5.1 for an example of this coding process.

However, more detail was needed at this stage. This meant the first cycle of analysis would have two phases. In phase one, high inference categories, clarity and immediacy gave a general picture of the data set. I decided to start phase two with the low-inference descriptive labels as identified in the literature (see 2.3.4). These descriptive labels were captured on a qualitative codebook which Creswell (2009:185) describes as particularly useful when one is dealing with pre-determined codes. However, he adds that the codebook can initially start with labels from the literature but can also expand to incorporate more labels. It also became clear that the evaluators used different terms to describe a specific concept. Their descriptions were included in the list to make it as comprehensive as possible.

Miles *et al.* (2014) note that in cases where multiple field-workers are involved it is important to show that the data protocols are comparable. This seemingly quantitative manner of dealing with qualitative data addressed the possible concern regarding the fact that evaluators did not use standardised forms. It was now possible to compare the evaluation reports and to show that on the one hand different evaluators commented on similar topics, and on the other that their evaluation reports covered the same topics as mine. This implied that even in the absence of a standardised evaluation report, the evaluation reports could provide data relating to the questions asked. This contributed to the strengthening of the validity of using unstandardised documents in the analysis.

From the second phase of the first cycle of analysis, it also became apparent that there were specific elements of teacher clarity and teacher immediacy that seemed to be particularly relevant to a Foundation Phase classroom. Table 5.2 presents a summary of the descriptive labels used by external evaluators and it shows how these link with the low-inference variables related to clarity as described in the literature.

Table 5.2 Clarity in the Foundation Phase classroom

Clarity component	**Descriptive themes that emerged from evaluators' comments**	**Low inference variables of clarity that exists in the literature**
Verbal clarity	• Real-life links • Story – fun way to introduce + and – • Practical applications • Age-appropriate • Involve all learners/learner participation • Appropriate terminology	Examples
	• Varying the pace of the lesson • Grade R children concentrate for about 20 minutes	Pace
	• Check for understanding • Questions on a variety of levels • Open-ended questions to guide learning • Challenge	Questioning
	• Plan for shorter sections	Time planning
	• Use volume to pull focus	Volume
Structural clarity	• Focus and coherence • Songs add value • Management of the learning process to keep them focussed • Less is more • Provide follow-up activity for advanced learners	Organisation
	• Consolidate one concept before introducing another • 3D before 2D	Sequence/order
	• Precise • Step-by-step • Reinforce instructions	Instructions
	• Repetition during lesson	Reviews
	• Consider the space; especially when working on the mat	Classroom set-up
	• Use concrete visual aids • Use pictures	Concrete resources
	• Learners should all be able to see teacher and resources/materials/posters	Visibility

The descriptive labels that emerged from the initial coding of the data related to immediacy behaviours were noticeably fewer than for those for clarity. A possible explanation for this could be that evaluators preferred to place more emphasis on the execution of the lesson, while they merely mentioned the teaching style of the student teacher. Table 5.3 summarises the descriptive labels used by external evaluators and it shows how these link with the low-inference variables related to immediacy as described in the literature.

Table 5.3 Immediacy in the Foundation Phase classroom

	Descriptive themes	**Low inference variables of immediacy which exists in the literature**
Nonverbal immediacy	• Calm • Friendly • Energetic • Lively	Style
	• Smile • Eye-contact	Facial expression
	• Body position • Spatial orientation	Body language
Verbal immediacy	• Enthusiastic	Expressiveness
	• Use of names • Rapport	Connecting

The first cycle of analysis confirmed my suspicion that clarity and immediacy behaviours were evident and necessary in Foundation Phase classrooms. This was important, because most instructional communication research to date has been conducted in high schools or at tertiary level. In addition, this analysis addressed the possible limitation regarding the fact that multiple field-workers did not use standardised forms. It was now clear that the data sets were comparable. However, the analysis was still on a superficial level at this stage and it was clear that more depth was required. I therefore embarked on the second cycle analysis, which is described in the following sub-section.

5.2.2 Second cycle analysis

Prior to the second cycle of the qualitative analysis, it was necessary to read all the reports again, but this time to identify specific meaningful phrases of text (Task 5) which related either to clarity or to immediacy. The colour-coded documents from the first cycle analyses were used as a point of departure (see an example in Addendum 5.1). Firstly, all *clarity* related comments per student per year and thereafter all *immediacy* related comments per student per year were transcribed (Task 5). This process of transcription enabled me to capture all meaningful units of text on a spreadsheet in preparation for the second cycle of the qualitative analysis[43].

In order to manage the large quantity of qualitative data, the comments for each student teacher were captured individually according to the year of study. However, because I wanted

[43] See Addendum 5.2 for examples of transcriptions on a spreadsheet.

to study the group as a case all the comments were combined according to the two main codes, i.e. clarity and immediacy. Therefore, at this stage two main data sets were prepared for the second cycle coding which were, as previously, read before the start of this cycle. From the initial reading of both data sets, it was evident that there were positive as well as negative comments relating to clarity and immediacy. This implied, as could be expected, that student teachers were in some instances able to use clarity and immediacy elements in their lessons, but that they sometimes struggled with the implementation thereof.

5.2.2.1 Second cycle coding: clarity

For the next level of analysis, I separated the positive and the negative comments. Most of the student teachers received positive and negative comments related to clarity, but the majority of the comments were negative. As I was particularly interested in the comments that would highlight aspects that affect the clarity of the lessons of student teachers, I decided to extract the negative comments for analysis. The units of meaningful texts were coded by using descriptive themes, in other words I summarised the units in a word or short phrase as suggested by Miles *et al.* (2014). The following themes emerged from the data as possible challenges to the clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase student teachers:

- Planning
- Resources
- Procedure
- Learner participation
- Real-life links
- Concrete & practical
- Pace
- Appropriate level & challenge
- Questioning
- Time planning
- Visibility
- Instructions
- Volume
- Purpose
- Review/revise
- Emphasise/reinforce
- Examples
- Explanations

The interpretation of these themes will be discussed in Section 5.3.

5.2.2.2 Second cycle coding: Immediacy

The initial reading of the immediacy data set showed positive comments as well as negative comments relating to verbal and nonverbal immediacy of student teachers in the classroom. In the same manner as the clarity data set was coded, the meaningful units of text were summarised into descriptive codes. Because immediacy as a construct is rooted in the personality domain, it was not unexpected that all the comments related to style and behaviour of student teachers in the classroom. The positive comments seemed to allude to positive dispositions, whereas the negative comments often hinted at insecurities and nervousness. The following themes emerged from the analysis of the data related to immediacy:

- Voice/expression
- Smile
- Use of names
- Enthusiasm
- Formal
- Connect
- Involvement
- Respond
- Eye-contact
- Nervous
- Pace
- Courtesy
- Assertive behaviour
- Confidence

The way in which these themes contribute to an understanding of the student teacher immediacy behaviours will be the focus of Section 5.4.

5.3 CLARITY (Q1): ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

This section interprets the qualitative findings related to clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase student teachers. The qualitative sub-question, which this section aims to answer, is: To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

Section 5.3.1 firstly presents the findings according to year of study. Thereafter in Section 5.3.2, the themes identified from the data set are grouped in order to be linked to the existing categories in the literature. Lastly, Section 5.3.3 presents an interpretation of the findings related to the clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase student teachers.

5.3.1 Presentation of the results

As explained in Section 5.2.2.1, I was particularly interested in the comments made by external evaluators that would draw attention to factors that influenced the clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase (FP) student teachers[44]. The following section will present the results according to year of study. In an attempt to focus the discussion, I decided to focus on the factors that were evident in the lessons of more than a third of the group. The order in which the discussion is structured is determined by the percentage of student teachers who experienced problems related to a specific theme (factor).

5.3.1.1 First year FP student teachers (2009)

All first year student teachers completed the teaching practice sessions in Grade R classrooms where they were required to teach lessons in Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills. The analysis of the evaluation reports highlighted that although there were many aspects that negatively affected the outcome of their lessons, some of these aspects were more problematic than others, in other words, it was now possible to rank them in an order from the most to the least challenging. This procedure will also be followed for the discussion of the results of the second, third and fourth years. Table 5.4 below lists the clarity themes, how they rank in terms of challenge and the number of negative comments linked to each theme.

[44] In the interest of brevity, I will from now on only refer to student teachers and not FP student teachers.

Table 5.4 Clarity themes: first years

Themes	Ranking of factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of first year student teachers	Percentage of first year student teachers who received negative comments	Number of negative comments overall
Planning	1	80%	23
Time planning	2	80%	22
Questioning	3	66%	10
Procedure	4	60%	16
Instructions	5	46%	9
Real-life links	6	40%	7
Appropriate level & Challenge	7	40%	11
Practical & concrete	8	33%	8
Explanations	9	33%	6
Learner participation	10	20%	5
Visibility	11	20%	3
Volume	12	13%	2
Pace	13	20%	3
Resources	14	6%	1

The following paragraphs summarise the results according to the themes listed in Table 5.4[45].

The majority of first year student teachers (80%) received negative comments related to issues around the actual *planning* of lessons[46]. The comments referred to issues such as detail, focus, planning for learning, depth and questioning. From the comments it is evident that student teachers find the planning of lessons challenging. They seemed to give too little detail on lesson plans and they seemed to battle with focus and coherence in the planning of their lessons. There was also too little consideration for the actual learning that was supposed to take place, which may defeat the whole purpose of the exercise. Typical statements[47] were:

- *What did you want to teach them today? You did lots of counting… they did this months ago…think more about learning.*
- *…however, the majority of children spent more time colouring in than drawing or thinking about the story - this was not the planned outcome of the lesson.*

Time planning presented another challenge. The majority of student teachers (80%) received comments that point to shortcomings regarding time planning. Although there were some instances where lessons were too short, it would seem that, in general, first year student teachers planned lessons and activities that were too long. Evaluators remarked that Grade R

[45] This procedure will be followed throughout Section 5.3.1
[46] See Addendum 5.3 for examples of lesson plans used by FP student teachers.
[47] All statements provided from hereon were taken verbatim from the evaluation reports.

learners cannot concentrate for very long and student teachers were encouraged to divide the duration of the lesson into shorter sections to help with time planning and time-management. External evaluators made comments such as:

- *Remember the Gr R child has an attention span of 20 min - so do not plan too much.*
- *Think about time planning - plan for shorter sections of time.*

Furthermore, 66% of the group battled with formulating good *questions*. Most of the comments indicated that in general, the students teachers had attempted to plan for questioning, but they seemed mostly to plan closed questions that only require one-word answers and subsequently do not encourage deep discovery. Student teachers were advised to add the questions that they intended to ask to the lesson plan. Questions should be purposeful and lead to critical learning. Typical statements were:

- *You should ask questions to lead their learning and discovery.*
- *Plan more open-ended questions to guide their learning.*

Another aspect that seemed to challenge a large proportion of student teachers (60%) was the issue of the *procedure* of sequencing or ordering the activities in the lesson. All the comments suggested that student teachers battled with this aspect, because either they sequenced learning activities incorrectly or they neglected to explain the order of the events to the learners. They were encouraged to consider the progression of learning during the lesson, but also the order of the different elements, such as the introduction and the conclusion of the lessons. Typical statements that suggest that they might have had the necessary elements in the lesson, but that they did not follow a more conventional order were:

- *Use the conclusion as the introduction.*
- *The concepts of plus and minus are two different operations…. Suggestion… consolidate one operation before introducing the other.*

46% of the group of first year student teachers had difficulty with giving *instructions* to Grade R learners. It is important to give clear instructions so that learners can work independently on the task after the initial input, but there were also instances where the instructions that formed part of the lesson were unclear. Of particular importance is the fact that verbal instructions must be step-by-step and student teachers must ensure that learners can understand and follow the instructions easily. Typical comments which suggested that student teachers were not specific enough when giving instructions were:

- *Think more about step-by-step activities during your lesson.*
- *Remember, independent work requires very precise instructions… you mentioned some before the counting and didn't really reinforce them before the task.*

Another element of clarity is context, because learners need to connect the content of the lesson to their real-life experiences. Some student teachers (40%) were unable to make these *real-life links* for the learners. Comments suggested that the introductions to lessons should have stronger real-life links. Typical comments were:

- *I would've liked a stronger introduction…should provide the link with (a) the theme and (b) their real-life environment.*
- *Link the topic to their real-life experiences.*

Pitching the lesson at the *appropriate level* is another aspect of clarity which 40% of the student teachers found problematic. Evaluators commented that student teachers pitched lessons too high as the content was at times not suitable for Grade R and the vocabulary too advanced. Student teachers often had unrealistic expectations of Grade R learners. For example, they would cover too many topics in one lesson and as a result, some learners could not cope. External evaluators commented that:

- *Your initial discussion… seems above the children and they didn't respond much.*
- *The impact of the concepts could become watered down as there were so many and possibly not all children grasped all the concepts.*

Examples in Grade R should be *practical and concrete*, but 33% student teachers had difficulty with finding a concrete way to explain abstract concepts. Comments suggested that the use of pictures and concrete resources would have helped to make examples more practical. Suggestions made by external evaluators were:

- *Children this age think concretely… so hold up fingers or show picture.*
- *More concrete visual aids were needed.*

A third of the first year student teachers struggled to explain clearly, so that Grade R learners could follow easily. Some of the student teachers seemed to disregard the teacher-directed input which should have preceded the activity. This meant that learners, for example, did an art activity without having received proper guidance on how to proceed with the task. Student teachers were advised to make connections, and to take learners in a logical way from the known to the unknown. Typical statements were:

- *Have they worked with the medium before? Should you not teach them 'how to'?*
- *Link… and take them from the known to the unknown.*

Less than a third of the group battled with the following themes: *learner participation, visibility, volume, pace and resources*.

5.3.1.2 FP Second year student teachers (2010)

During the second year, FP student teachers were placed in Grade 1 classrooms where they had to teach a variety of Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills lessons. These student teachers are faced with a particular dilemma because the attendance of Grade R is not yet compulsory for learners in South Africa. This means that not all the learners in a Grade 1 class necessarily had exposure to Grade R and this leads to a variety of problems that may influence the teaching and learning. Table 5.5 presents the themes related to challenges of clarity, how they rank in terms of challenge and the number of negative comments linked to each theme.

Table 5.5: Clarity themes: second years

Theme	**Ranking of factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of second year student teachers**	**Percentage of second year student teachers who received negative comments**	**Number of negative comments overall**
Planning	1	86%	23
Appropriate level & Challenge	2	86%	16
Real-life links	3	60%	14
Learner participation	4	60%	17
Resources	5	47%	8
Questioning	6	40%	12
Time planning	7	40%	10
Purpose	8	40%	8
Visibility	9	33%	7
Instructions	10	27%	5
Pace	11	26%	4
Procedure	12	20%	4
Practical & concrete	13	13%	3
Review/revise	14	13%	3
Emphasise/reinforce	16	13%	2

As in year one, most of these student teachers (86%) received negative comments regarding the *planning* of their lessons. In general, they should have added more detail to lesson plans. It is also evident that they needed to think more about the actual learning that was supposed

to take place. Evaluators mentioned that although there was evidence that the student teacher had been thinking about the execution of the lesson, there was little evidence to show that the learning was the driving force. Student teachers should give more attention to what they want the learners to learn during the lesson or by doing a specific activity. Specific comments indicated that student teachers were trying to do too much in one lesson. There were also comments that referred to the idea of differentiating between ability groups. Other comments that suggested that student teachers seemed to struggle linking the requirements of the curriculum to their lessons, i.e. they struggled to apply the requirements practically. It was clear that they had referred to the curriculum for the planning of the lesson and had indicated this on the lesson plan, but this did not translate practically into the actual lesson. Typical comments on the evaluation reports were:

- *Never give them something to keep them busy... Always plan for sensible learning.*
- *They had fun… but you have to now ask yourself where the deep learning took place…*
- *Would like to see some form of individual planning for the different groups.*

The majority of student teachers (86%) had difficulty with pitching the lesson or the activity at the *appropriate* level. Comments revealed that activities were often too advanced and others too easy for the learners. Also, second year student teachers appeared to find it difficult to add an element of *challenge* to their lessons. Either they planned lessons that were not challenging or they mainly used strategies that minimise the possibility of challenge, e.g. allowing the whole class to shout out answers together. Typical statements were:

- *When asking what the children estimation was… use that word… in a sentence… it is a big word but they are bright and can handle it.*
- *Although you ask many questions your initial lesson input is very teacher-centred and the learners often answer all together as a class…think about asking individual learners… this will, furthermore, help to add more challenge.*

Many of the student teachers (60%) had difficulty making linkages to *real-life* situations. Comments stressed the importance of connecting with the life experience of the learners, in other words with the contexts within which learners function. Another linkage with which student teachers seemed to struggle was the link between new and existing knowledge. Student teachers appear to have difficulty making connections between learners' existing knowledge and the new knowledge that they were trying to teach. At times, the links were

seemingly obvious for the trained observer, but the student teacher failed to make it clear to the learners as suggested by comments such as:

- *Rethink introduction… song provided obvious link to the them, but it would help to just connect it for them - always provide a real-life link.*
- *I missed the real-life link - just connect with their world before you go on.*

Student teachers are encouraged to use group work as a strategy to encourage learner engagement. Yet, *learner participation* was another area where 60% of second year student teachers seemed to struggle. The comments indicated that these student teachers were unable to include learner participation in the lesson. Lessons seemed to be too teacher-centred with little learner involvement. One particular student teacher achieved some learner involvement, but she struggled to include all learners and focussed only on those who showed a keen interest or who were seated directly in front of her. Typical statements were:

- *Think of intro activity that could involve all of them.*
- *Be mindful of not only working with the ones that work with you - think about them all.*

Many of the student teachers (47%) received negative comments with regard to the effective use of *resources*. In some instances they neglected to make use of appropriate resources and in other cases they used the resources ineffectively and it became more of a hindrance than a teaching aid. Comments suggested that they should use labels together with the resources to support the learning. Typical statements were:

- *You had a lovely poster… but you didn't seem to use it…talk about the food groups… refer to the chart and get them thinking…*
- *Good to have real objects but you must have flashcards with symbols written on it… this will promote integration.*

40% of second year student teachers battled with *questioning*. Comments indicated that they asked too many closed questions, which did not encourage critical engagement. Furthermore, they needed to plan questions on different levels so that they could target individual learners at appropriate levels. Some consideration should be given to support learners who give incorrect answers. Suggestions made were:

- *Think much more about questioning… you have to plan questions on different levels.*
- *You asked many q, but most of them were closed… adding more open-ended q… to deepen learning.*

Evaluators also commented that student teachers (40%) should carefully consider the *purpose* of the content and/or activities that they include in the lesson. Comments indicated that activities sometimes did not contribute to learning at that specific stage and the purpose for including the activity in the lesson was unclear. Typical statements were:

- *What was the purpose of the additional info about the coins? Was it really needed?*
- *Rethink the tasks… what was the purpose? How does this reinforce the lesson?*

Time planning is another area which 40% of the second year student teachers found challenging. In general, comments suggested that they struggled to divide the allocated lesson time (usually 25 -35 minutes) into shorter more focussed sections. This also contributed to the fact that, at times, a single activity went on for too long. Typical evaluator statements were:

- *Work on adding detail to planning… time planning.. 25-30 min doesn't show evidence of time planning… break it into smaller units… this lesson was very short.*
- *Don't keep them on the mat for too long listening to info…*

33% of the student teachers needed to give more consideration to *visibility* in their lessons. Comments from the external evaluators indicated that in cases where they used pictures and labels these were mostly too small and that the specific colours of labels were not clearly visible. The layout of the pictures and labels on cluttered blackboards can also impede visibility. Typical statements were:

- *Labels… font should be larger.*
- *Rethink the colour of the labels… black would have worked better.*
- *Look at the lay-out of the board… find ways to pull focus to the learning.*

Less than a third of the group battled with the following themes: *instructions, pace, procedure, practical and concrete, review and revise,* as well as *emphasise and reinforce*.

5.3.1.3 FP Third year student teachers (2011)

Third year student teachers are placed in either Grade 2 or 3 classes where they have to plan and teach lessons in Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills. Table 5.6 below presents the negative comments from the evaluators related to the clarity of their lessons, how they rank in terms of challenge and the number of negative comments linked to each code.

Table 5.6: Clarity themes: third years

Themes	**Ranking of factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of third year student teachers**	**Percentage of third year student teachers who received negative comments**	**Number of negative comments overall**
Planning	1	93%	36
Appropriate level & Challenge	2	60%	17
Real-life links	3	60%	15
Questioning	4	60%	12
Instructions	5	53%	13
Practical & concrete examples	6	47%	18
Procedure	7	47%	11
Resources	8	47%	10
Learner participation	9	47%	8
Pace	10	47%	8
Time planning	11	40%	7
Visibility	12	40%	6
Review/revise	13	33%	6
Emphasise/reinforce	14	20%	4
Volume	15	13%	2

Planning emerged yet again as a main challenge to the clarity of the lessons of 93% of third year student teachers who participated in the study. Comments indicated that in some instances student teachers still provided too little detail about the content that they wanted to teach and on how they were going to teach it. They seemed to put more emphasis on what they, as teachers, were supposed to do, rather than on the intended learning. Comments suggested that lesson content was at times vague, thin, and did not encourage deep critical learning. Student teachers do not plan lessons with enough accuracy, especially with regard to skills that they intended to develop during the lesson. The use of Bloom's taxonomy[48] is suggested as support to develop lessons that can promote critical learning. This taxonomy

[48]Bloom's taxonomy (1956) is a way of exposing student teachers to the notion that there are different types of learning, such as the cognitive, affective and the psychomotor, but also that each type has different levels of learning which should be considered. On the one hand, the taxonomy helps to extend learning towards a more critical level, but on the other hand, it posits that certain prior knowledge and skills at a lower levels are necessary before learning can be extended at a higher level.

was included in their Professional Practice lectures, which could indicate that student teachers struggled to apply what they had heard during the lectures to the planning of the actual lessons. Evaluators further mentioned instances where there was evidence in teaching files[49] of some research done, but that it did not show in the actual planning. Typical statements made by external evaluators were:

- *Specify the skills you intend to develop during the lesson… don't be vague.*
- *Think about adding more detail to you planning… Consider Bloom's taxonomy to plan for more critical learning.*

Furthermore, comments indicated that 60% of third year student teachers did too little to *challenge* the learners and some of them struggled to pitch lessons at the *appropriate level*. It seemed that student teachers disregard the prior knowledge of learners of the topic when they plan the lesson, because some of the remarks hinted at the fact that learners might already know the work because it had been covered previously. There was, for example, a lesson where the main activity should rather have been used as the introductory activity, which implied that the student teacher misjudged the level of the learners. Evaluators also mentioned that some behavioural issues resulted because the learners were not being challenged enough. There were also indications that student teachers planned lessons that would be better suited for lower grades or even for the intermediate phase. External evaluators made typical statements such as:

- *Think about asking more open-ended questions….encourage them to answer… in full sentences.*
- *If you don't want to work on new content you should think about developing a skill… why not give them a writing activity… they are ready for a challenge.*

A significant proportion (60%) of third year student teachers also struggled to make the learning relevant to the lives of learners. Comments suggested that a stronger emphasis should be placed on creating specific contexts for learners. *Real-life links* and links to prior knowledge are important so that learners can make meaning of what the teacher teaches. Student teachers seemed at times to recognise the links in their planning, but did not make it clear enough for the learners. Moreover, they sometimes used examples as real-life links which are too foreign for the learners, for example, one student teacher wanted to speak about

[49] Student teachers have to keep a teaching practice file with them at all times. This should show all planned and taught lessons and general administrations. There also has to be a section, which shows what research was necessary in order to prepare for the lessons.

poor people and the example she used to create context for them was poverty in Somalia. Another used an ABBA song to introduce the concept *money* to grade two learners. This did not work because the learners did not know the song, but also because the song did not address her money-related topic. Typical statements were:

- *Song (Money, money, money)… knew the song… but as you've noticed - they're a little too young to know about ABBA.*
- *Rethink intro… you tried make real-life link to poverty in Somalia… there's a lot of poverty in SA as well.*

Many of the third year student teachers (60%) were criticized for their use of *questioning*. From the comments it is evident that questioning is important for two reasons. Firstly, by asking questions teachers can assess if learners follow and/or understand, and secondly, questioning can deepen the learning experience provided that questions are of an open-ended nature. Various comments suggested that third year student teachers seldom asked open-ended questions. Furthermore, student teachers struggled to deal with incorrect answers. They ignored the incorrect answer and provided the correct one, rather than to lead or encourage the learner to reassess his/her own answer. Typical comments were:

- *Think more about what to do when they give an incorrect answer - you can't simply ignore that and give the correct one.*
- *Think much more about questioning for deep learning…unpack the learning much more.*

More than half of these student teachers (53%) also received negative comments with regard to the way in which they deal with *instructions*. Evaluators suggested that it was important to give clear, precise instructions, verbally but also in writing. Student teachers were, at times, not clear and as a result learners either did not know what to do or they took too long because they were unsure. Student teachers also gave instructions before getting the learners' attention and they did not check if learners' knew what to do. Comments further suggested that it was important to give learners the 'whole picture' of what was going to happen followed by systematic step-by-step instructions. Typical statements included:

- *Worksheet activities was confusing, instructions were ambiguous.*
- *With clearer direction… class would have done well.*

47% of the third year student teachers did not make their *examples practical and concrete*. According to the comments, it was not only struggling learners who needed concrete and

practical explanations, in fact, all learners could benefit from the inclusion of concrete and practical activities, before proceeding to the more abstract. Evaluators made suggestions such as the following:

- *When introducing Maths words be sure to do many concrete examples and show them what the words mean.*
- *Exposition should have had many practical activities involving the use of different denominations in calculating different amounts.*

Almost half of the third year student teachers (47%) also seemed to find it difficult to follow a sensible *procedure* during the lesson. In one case, there was an introduction, but it was too easy and simply a repetition or revision of what the learners already knew. One student teacher left the core component, as suggested by the chosen assessment standard to be included in the lesson, for the conclusion of the lesson. There were also instances where the evaluator suggested that the student teacher should first demonstrate some examples before the learners were sent to their desks to complete the tasks. Covering too many topics in one lesson can also affect the procedure of the lesson. As will be discussed in Section 5.5.3, there seems to be overlapping of the themes; the problems explained here could also be a result of issues related to planning. Student teachers were also encouraged to begin to think about extending the learning after the lesson, by planning relevant homework that would continue the learning process. Typical comments about this were:

- *This is solved by doing a few examples together before they work on their own.*
- *Why not start with them there (carpet space) and do one/two sentences together…then send them to the desks to complete the second part in pairs.*

Learner participation was another barrier to the clarity of the lessons of third year student teachers (47%). Comments suggested that lessons were too teacher-directed and that student teachers should think more of ways to include more active learner participation in the lesson. Active learner participation would help to keep learners engaged throughout the lesson.

Student teachers were advised to check that all learners participated when they required learner participation. Typical statements about learner participation included:

- *…calling of 3 learners in front… is ok, but make more of this… let learners volunteer and choose his/her number and say the number and the class should then confirm…. Involve the learners.*
- *You transmitted a great deal of information… and the methodology was Q & A.*

The use of *resources* was another aspect that affected the clarity of the lessons of 47% of the student teachers. Resources should support the learning and authentic resources that are realistic can be used very effectively. Student teachers were criticized for not having used resources when needed, or for using them incorrectly. Comments suggested that in situations where student teachers were to use pictures as resources they should ensure that they also use appropriate labels with the pictures. This would help with literacy development presuming that they make sure that learners can read the labels. Typical statements were:

- *Have a chart or flashcard of the basic operation.*
- *Remember that we teach in an integrated way… where were the flashcards?…important part of literacy development.*

Evaluators also criticized the *pace* of the execution of lessons of third year student teachers (47%). Comments indicated that the pace was often either too slow or too rushed. In instances where the pace was too slow, learners seemed to lose interest and became restless. Including learners during the input session seemed to have a positive effect on the pacing. In cases where the pace was too rushed it may have happened that the student teacher interrupted the learners, either whilst they were giving an answer or whilst they were busy attempting to copy what the teacher demonstrated. Typical statements were:

- *You showed them how to point…but you only gave them 20 sec to try it….slow down your presentation and give them enough time to try it… this will then also give you time to walk around and pay individual attention.*
- *The pace of the lesson needs to speed up as they become restless on the mat.*

Less than a third of the group battled with the following themes: *emphasise and reinforce* and *volume* and therefore these will not be discussed.

5.3.1.4 FP Fourth year student teachers (2012)

Fourth year student teachers spend some time during the first teaching practice session of the year in Grade R classrooms and thereafter in the grade in which they had not had any prior exposure. They are required to plan and teach lessons in Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills.

Table 5.7: Clarity themes: fourth years

Themes	**Ranking of factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of fourth year student teachers**	**Percentage of fourth year student teachers who received negative comments**	**Number of negative comments overall**
Planning	1	80%	24
Resources	2	73%	17
Appropriate level & Challenge	3	67%	23
Learner participation	4	53%	16
Time planning	5	53%	9
Real-life links	6	40%	8
Emphasise/reinforce	7	33%	8
Procedure	8	27%	6
Questioning	9	27%	6
Instructions	10	27%	5
Practical and concrete examples	11	27%	4
Review/revise	12	20%	5
Pace	13	13%	3
Visibility	14	13%	2

Planning seemed to be the major obstacle that affected the lessons of 80% of student teachers at this level. The majority of comments suggested that they needed to work on the specific focus of their lessons, as the focus of what they wanted to achieve seemed to be lacking. From the comments it can be derived that the lack of focus was the result of either too little detail on the lesson plan, or because they struggled to connect the content to actual reachable objectives. Clearly, the planning of the lesson and the subsequent detail on the lesson plan was not enough to show how student teachers planned to make the content accessible to the learners or how they planned to facilitate the learning activities. Typical statements were:

- *When writing up lesson plans try to be more focused so that your lesson is more focused. State exactly what it is that you want to accomplish and what you expect learners to do…*
- *Planning should be more detailed.*

Three quarters (73%) of the fourth year student teachers received negative comments relating to the use of *resources* in their lessons. Some of them did not make use of any resources and comments suggested that the use of a story, for example, or pictures could have enhanced the

meaning for the learners. Their use of flashcards, or lack thereof, was also criticised. In cases where they had flashcards they were often not used effectively – some were too small, some placed on cluttered boards or put flat on the mat so that not all learners could see the cards. There was also a case where the student teacher made puppets to demonstrate a specific dialogue, but then she did not use them at all. Statements such as the following were typical:

- *Keep in mind that learners are stimulated visually… include pictures of the words to make it interesting.*
- *Print under the pictures could be larger…they need to be able to read it from their desks.*

Two thirds (67%) of fourth year student teachers seemed to still battle to pitch lessons at an *appropriate level*, and also to add an element of *challenge* to their lessons. Comments suggested that student teachers were too hesitant to create opportunities learners would find challenging. It seemed that they wanted to keep the work "easy" for the learners (possibly because it was an evaluation lesson) and, as a result, demanded far too little from learners. Evaluators suggested the use of worksheets instead of too many game-like activities with a stronger emphasis on what was expected of learners at this stage. Student teachers should also at this stage begin to think about differentiated worksheets for learners. Student teachers also too often accepted one-word answers from the learners and then neglected to extend the learning by asking for explanations that could possibly have shown a deeper level of understanding by the learners. Comments also suggested that the majority of the activities were not challenging enough or that they were too easy. However, there were also comments that suggested that student teachers expected too much from learners. For example, a student teacher taught in a class where the medium of instruction was the second language of the learners, and as the LoLT[50] this had been only introduced at the beginning of that specific year. This meant that up to Grade 2 learners were taught in isiXhosa and from Grade 3 the medium of instruction changed to English and the student teacher should have given this more consideration. Another student teacher expected too much from learners who had never had any contact with the topic of the lesson before. Evaluators made comments such as the following:

- *Introduce new words by means of actions and questions…this was rather challenging for the class (started L2 as LoLT this year).*
- *… rather swopped some of the games with worksheets… which could've provided more challenge.*

[50]LoLT refers to the Language of Learning and Teaching , or medium of instruction.

As mentioned previously, *learner participation* is important to enhance the clarity of the lesson. However, some of the fourth year student teachers (53%) still found this challenging. Comments indicated that lessons were still predominantly teacher-centred and that too little learner participation was encouraged. Furthermore, student teachers seemed to focus on the learners directly in front of them, instead of including learners in the back rows as well. There are instances where whole class participation can work, but it seems that micro group teaching would enhance the effectiveness of learner participation without the general behaviour management issues that result from an attempt to force learner participation in whole class activities. Typical comments were:

- *Make sure that you include the back rows… you concentrated mainly on the front section.*
- *Your macro group approach limited overall participation since individual learners answered questions and the rest gradually became restless.*

Student teachers (53%) at this level still seemed to disregard *time planning* in their lesson planning. They did not fill in the time column on the lesson plan and subsequently too often they took too long with activities. This is problematic, because when lesson activities take too long, or learners have to wait for the following activity it may negatively affect their behaviour. Evaluators commented on this with statements such as the following:

- *Think more about time planning… introduction tool a bit long… don't simply indicate25 min… show how you intend to divide the time… will help tighten the lesson more.*
- *You disregard the time column…*

After four years, 40% of these student teachers still struggled to make the real-life links for the learners. Comments by the external evaluators suggested that they attempted to introduce lessons, but that they were still unable to use the introduction to link the topic of the lesson to the prior knowledge and real-life experiences of the learners. Typical statements were:

- *Rethink introduction… you have to provide the hooks for them… real life link… they've all been scared of something… use that to pull them into the lesson.*
- *Rethink the introduction… purpose is to provide real-life links to hook the learning*

33% of the fourth year student teachers struggled to *emphasise and reinforce* information during the lessons. This created situations where learners, according to the comments by the

external evaluators, were not supported enough. They seemed unable to ascertain that at times learners needed extra support to understand what was taught. Statements such as the following were typical:

- *Not all of them got the 'smiling' - again you need to reinforce with own smile or smiley face and grumpy.*
- *You provided very little support to learners.*

Less than a third of the group battled with the following themes: *procedure*, *questioning*, *instructions*, *practical and concrete examples*, *review and revise*, *pace* and *visibility*.

The following section will aggregate the data and thereafter Section 5.3.3 will provide a discussion of the main areas of concern related to the clarity of the lessons of FP student teachers.

5.3.2 Aggregating the data (2009 – 2012)

From the analysis it became apparent that various factors affect the clarity of the lessons of student teachers. Previous studies, such as Chesebro (2002), identified components of clarity that help to give more structure and objectivity to a rather high inference and subjective concept such as clarity. In other words, advising student teachers that they should be verbally clear is a vague instruction and it is, in fact, still unclear. However, if you suggest to them that they should include explanations and examples in their lessons and that they must speak fluently, it gives them more structure and a specific focus on what contributes to clear teaching. The themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of the challenges related to clarity can be described as factors which influence the effectiveness of the lower inference components of clarity, namely fluency, examples and explanations, organisation and visual aids (Chesebro 2002). In doing so, the thematic analysis appears to further deconstruct the components of clarity specifically related to teaching in the Foundation Phase. Table 5.8 shows that the themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis can be linked, firstly to the components as described by Chesebro (2002) and subsequently to the broad categories which constitute teacher clarity.

Table 5.8: Linking themes which emerged from the data to existing low-inference variables as identified by Chesebro (2002)

Broad categories established through the literature	**Low inference variables of clarity described in the literature (Chesebro 2002)**	**Themes which emerged from the qualitative data analysis which can be interpreted as factors influencing the clarity of the lessons of FP student teachers**
VERBAL CLARITY	Fluency	Volume/ projection
		Pace
	Explanations and examples	Ensuring appropriate level & challenge
		Ensuring learner participation
		Making real-life links
		Questioning
		Giving practical & concrete examples
		Giving instructions
		Emphasise and reinforce
		Review and revise
STRUCTURAL CLARITY	Organisation	Planning
		Time-planning
		Purpose
		Procedure
	Visual Aids	Use of resources
		Visibility

The following section will compare the results of the qualitative analysis related to challenges to the clarity of the lessons of student teachers in order to ascertain how their clarity behaviours changed over time.

From the second cycle analysis, it is evident that various aspects can affect the clarity of a lesson. It was now necessary to examine the results together in order to establish possible patterns. Table 5.9 below displays the themes that emerged from the analysis as factors influencing the clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase student teachers by ranking them in order of importance, and by placing them alongside each other to facilitate comparison.

Table 5.9 Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of student teachers

RANK	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **first year** students	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **second year** student teachers	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **third year** students	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **fourth year** student teachers
1	Planning	Planning	Planning	Planning
2	Time planning	Appropriate level & Challenge	Appropriate level & Challenge	Resources
3	Questioning	Real-life links	Real-life links	Appropriate level & Challenge
4	Procedure	Learner participation	Questioning	Learner participation
5	Instructions	Resources	Instructions	Time planning
6	Real-life links	Questioning	Practical & concrete examples	Real-life links
7	Appropriate level & Challenge	Time planning	Procedure	Emphasise/reinforce
8	Practical & concrete	Purpose	Resources	Procedure
9	Explanations	Visibility	Learner participation	Questioning
10	Learner participation	Instructions	Pace	Instructions
11	Visibility	Pace	Time planning	Examples
12	Volume	Procedure	Visibility	Review/revise
13	Pace	Practical & concrete	Review/revise	Pace
14	Resources	Review/revise	Emphasise/reinforce	Visibility
15		Emphasise/reinforce	Volume	

Table 5.9 indicates that although it seems that student teachers from the first to the fourth year are criticised on the same issues (themes), no distinct pattern is immediately noticeable. There are some changes evident, which will be discussed shortly, but, at first glance, it seems that from the first to the fourth year student teachers experience similar challenges. This may point to the fact that as a group their level of clarity did not improve, but it also may be the results of different expectations by external evaluators. However, as explained in Chapter 1, it is important to bear in mind that these student teachers had no formal lectures on clarity in general and its importance in teaching and learning. Thus the fact that there seems to be little improvement over four years is not surprising. From the ranking of the themes in the Table 5.9, it would seem that student teachers experience different challenges over the four years. Some trends stand out and deserve discussion.

The first noticeable trend, which emerged from the exercise of ranking the themes identified, was that student teachers from the first to the fourth year found the *planning* of the lessons very challenging. This is quite an important point, which deserves some consideration. In Chapter 2 (Section 2.3.2) the case was made for the problems created by noise related to the

teacher as the source and it was argued that this type of noise often occurs during the planning phase of a lesson; noise which most probably will influence the success of the messages sent and subsequently the teaching and learning in the classroom. It is significant that the planning of lessons seems to affect the outcome negatively from the first to fourth year. If student teachers continually receive negative comments related to the planning of their lessons in general, it surely is an indication that overall there is little noticeable improvement over the four years of the degree programme.

Second, third and fourth year student teachers struggled noticeably more than first years to plan lessons that were pitched at an *appropriate level* for learners and which could also provide some level of challenge. Although the reason for this it not clear, one can speculate that because first year student teachers were placed in Grade R classes, they might have received more support from the mentor teachers in this regard. However, second and third year student teachers faced particularly challenging situations for different reasons. Second year[51] student teachers might have found it challenging to pitch lessons because very often the Grade 1 classrooms consist of both learners who have had the Grade R background and learners who did not, because Grade R is not yet compulsory in the South African school system. This creates challenging situations for most teachers and one can reason that student teachers will battle with this even more. It also makes sense that in an attempt to include the learners without the Grade R background, lessons could be pitched at a lower level. This could then lead to situations where the learners who have had Grade R exposure would be unchallenged.

The reasons why third year student teachers battled to pitch lessons at appropriate levels may be two-fold: firstly because they are placed in diverse situations, in other words, situations that are different from what they were used to until that time. Very often this meant that they were either placed in very under-resourced schools where one could speculate that they assumed that the levels of the learners are lower. Additionally, they are placed in either Grade 2 or 3 classes, depending on the availability of these classes at the various schools. This is different from year one and two and resonates with the academic curriculum as well. In the first year, there is a strong emphasis on preparing the student teachers to teach in Grade R

[51] Second year student teachers were placed in Grade 1 classrooms.

classrooms, followed by a focus on Grade 1 in the second year of study (also focussing on the transition from the more informal Grade R to the more formal Grade 1). However, in the third year, the focus in content subjects becomes more general and student teachers have to adapt to the different levels, in other words, either to Grade 2 or 3.

Furthermore, first year student teachers received fewer negative comments related to learner participation and as a result seem to be more comfortable with learner participation. However, it is also reasonable to argue that there are often fewer learners in Grade R classrooms than in Grades 1, 2 and 3, which makes it easier to include them in the lesson. Furthermore, Grade R classrooms are often less formally organised and the younger learners seem to be more eager and spontaneous to take part and talk to the teacher. The more formal organisation of the other grades tends to discourage spontaneous contributions by the learners. As discussed in Chapter 2, the instructional communication model of classroom communication assumes that the teacher often initiates the interaction and that there are different rules which directs the process. Learners, for example, are expected to raise their hands either to answer a question or to contribute to discussions. One can therefore speculate that student teachers may find it difficult in larger classes to include more learners in the lesson. Furthermore, they may battle to incorporate strategies which could help to involve those learners who are not keen participants and who prefer to remain quiet during lessons.

There is an unexpected trend in the development of the student teachers regarding the use of resources. Results indicate that instead of improving, they seem to perform far worse in the fourth year than in the first year. In their first year, only 6% of the group were criticised about their use of resources; in the second and third years this number increased to 47%, with a further increase to 73% in the final year. Whilst the exact reason for this is not clear, one can speculate that various factors may have contributed to this inverted development. As mentioned previously, first year student teachers taught in Grade R classrooms which may, due to various reasons, have more resources than the other grades, which meant that student teachers had easier access to resources in their first year. Another reason for this may be that student teachers regard resources as something which is only needed where very young learners are concerned. This could point to the fact that they may not understand the purpose of using resources in their lessons. However, it could also be that the external evaluators were

for some reason increasingly strict about this aspect. From Table 5.11 one can infer that student teachers improved slightly in areas such as time-planning and questioning, although these are still areas of concern.

At this stage of the data analysis, I decided to review the organisation of the themes. Initially I ranked them in order of level of challenge, from the highest to the lowest. As discussed in the previous section, certain patterns were noticeable, however I felt that the interpretation was still too superficial and that another strategy was required. I used the model of teacher clarity as proposed by Chesebro (2002), as indicated in the second column of Table 5.10, to identify possible patterns and subsequently an alternative picture emerged which is not completely different from the first, but should rather be seen as complementary.

Table 5.10 Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons taught by student teachers ordered according to Chesebro's model

First year student teachers	Low inference variables[52]	**Second year** student teachers	Low inference variables	**Third year** student teachers	Low inference variables	**Fourth year** student teachers	Low inference variables
Planning	O	Planning	O	Planning	O	Planning	O
Time planning	O	Appropriate level & Challenge	EE	Appropriate level & Challenge	EE	Resources	V
Questioning	EE	Real-life links	EE	Real-life links	EE	Appropriate level & Challenge	EE
Procedure	O	Learner participation	EE	Questioning	EE	Learner participation	EE
Instructions	EE	Resources	V	Instructions	EE	Time planning	O
Real-life links	EE	Questioning	EE	Practical & concrete examples	EE	Real-life links	EE
Appropriate level & Challenge	EE	Time planning	O	Procedure	O	Emphasise/reinforce	EE
Practical & concrete	EE	Purpose	O	Resources	V	Procedure	O
Explanations	EE	Visibility	V	Learner participation	EE	Questioning	EE
Learner participation	EE	Instructions	EE	Pace	F	Instructions	EE
Visibility	V	Pace	F	Time planning	O	Examples	EE
Volume	F	Procedure	O	Visibility	V	Review/revise	EE
Pace	F	Practical & concrete	EE	Review/revise	EE	Pace	F
Resources	V	Review/revise	EE	Emphasise/reinforce	EE	Visibility	V
		Emphasise/reinforce	EE	Volume	F		

[52] The codes for the low inference variables are: O – organisation; EE – examples and explanations; V – visual aids and F- Fluency.

Table 5.10 Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons taught by student teachers ordered according to Chesebro's model (continued)

First year student teachers	% of student teachers affected	**Second year** student teachers affected	% of student teachers affected	**Third year** student teachers	% of student teachers affected	**Fourth year** student teachers	% of student teachers affected
Examples & explanations	50%	Examples & explanations	53%	Examples & explanations	53%	Examples & explanations	57%
Organisation	22%	Organisation	27%	Organisation	20%	Organisation	22%
Visual aids	14%	Visual aids	13%	Visual aids	13%	Visual aids	14%
Fluency	14%	Fluency	7%	Fluency	13%	Fluency	7%

As explained in Chapter 2, in an attempt to clarify the exact nature of what it means to be a clear teacher, Chesebro (2002) divides teacher clarity into two categories – verbal clarity and structural clarity. Thereafter he proposes (see Section 2.3.3.1) that each of these can be divided even further – verbal clarity is evident in how fluently a teacher speaks as well as the level of explanations and examples used, while structural clarity relates to the organisation of the lesson as well as the visual aids used.

From the Table 5.10 above an interesting trend which adds another dimension to the discussion emerges. In the section below the shaded row, the percentages related to each group are indicated. It appears that the element of teacher clarity that student teachers found most challenging relates to the use of explanations and examples. Additionally, from the first to the final year there was an increase in the level of criticism regarding their ability to use examples and explanations in the execution of lessons. The reason for this is not clear, however, it is quite reasonable to presume that evaluators expected more from final year student teachers than they did from first years.

Despite the fact that the results seem to indicate that there were definitely changes in the challenges that student teachers experienced related to clarity, I felt that I needed to probe further. Because I wanted to investigate the changes between the first and fourth years, I

decided to narrow the focus and exclude the second and third years. Up to this stage, it was evident that there were changes in the challenges to the clarity of their lessons, but I was not able to establish where these changes took place. I decided to rank the factors affecting the lessons again in order from the highest to the lowest, but staying with the grouping related to low inference variables proposed by Chesebro (2002).

Table 5.11 Comparison: first and fourth year student teachers

RANK/ POSITION	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **first year** students	Low inference variables	Factors affecting the clarity of the lessons of **fourth year** student teachers	Low inference variables
1	Questioning	EE - 66%	Appropriate level & Challenge	EE – 67%
2	Instructions	EE – 46%	Learner participation	EE – 53%
3	Real-life links	EE – 40%	Real-life links	EE – 40%
4	Appropriate level & Challenge	EE – 40%	Emphasise/reinforce	EE – 33%
5	Practical & concrete	EE – 3 3%	Questioning	EE – 27%
6	Explanations	EE – 33%	Instructions	EE – 27%
7	Learner participation	EE – 20%	Examples	EE – 27%
8			Review/revise	EE – 20%
1	Planning	O – 80%	Planning	O – 80%
2	Time planning	O – 80%	Time planning	O – 53%
3	Procedure	O – 60%	Procedure	O – 27%
1	Visibility	V -20%	Resources	V – 73%
2	Resources	V – 6%	Visibility	V – 13%
1	Pace	F -20%	Pace	F – 13%
2	Volume	F – 13%		

This exercise made it possible to look at the results from yet another angle, and it was now possible to show that certain aspects of clarity had improved over the four years whilst others had deteriorated. In Figure 5.11 it can be seen that there was a marked improvement related to the use of questioning and the way in which student teachers gave instructions. The time planning of the student teachers had also improved. However, three areas had deteriorated noticeably: *appropriate level & challenge*, *learner participation* and the *use of visual aids*. Furthermore, there was no improvement in the planning of the lessons of the FP student teachers.

The following section will discuss the specific areas of concern.

5.3.3 Discussion of the findings related to clarity

The main aim of the qualitative investigation related to clarity was to identify possible changes to the clarity of the lessons of Foundation Phase student teachers. As mentioned in Chapter 1, as well as in Chapter 3, these student teachers received no formal instruction on teacher clarity per se[53]. However, from the literature (see Chapter 2) it is evident that teacher clarity is, in fact, the umbrella term used in instructional communication for factors that are generally considered good teaching practice behaviours and which may have been mentioned in various subjects over the course of the degree programme. Student teachers were expected to observe these good teaching behaviours during teaching practice sessions and apply them to their own practice. The student teachers who were involved in this qualitative case study all successfully completed teaching practice every year, which means that they all achieved a minimum of 50% for all or most of their lesson evaluations. Some student teachers in the sample received distinctions for some of their lessons. This is important to mention because the issues raised were therefore not simply poor teaching by poor student teachers.

From the discussion above related to the frequency of criticism on the various influences on clarity, one can infer that there was improvement in some areas, but also that certain areas continued to challenge these student teachers. The planning of lessons stood out as an overall challenge. I want to argue at this stage that planning should be extracted from the list and rather be seen as an over-arching dimension. The planning of the lessons should address all other factors that can influence the clarity of the lesson.

- Planning

Planning was identified as the main obstacle in the teaching practice of student teachers from the first to the final year. Generally, they planned lessons that did not show enough detail on paper. Detailed planning is crucial for the execution of a successful lesson and it not only receives substantial attention during lectures, but also in discussions with student teachers after the lessons were taught and evaluated. The lesson plan (Addendum 5.3) is designed to

[53] This is also the case with teacher immediacy.

guide student teachers' planning so that they can translate the curriculum into practice. In order to complete the lesson plan student teachers have to consider aspects such as focus, prior knowledge, future knowledge, order of activities, time planning, resources, research, instructions, questioning, etc. As mentioned previously, all these aspects are essentially aspects of clear teaching. Although planning has not featured strongly in the literature related to teacher clarity, it is an important first step in working towards clear teaching. However, when planning is viewed from an IC perspective, it is clear that it is during the pre-communication activities as well as the encoding processes (see Figure 2.6) that the planning for the lessons should take place (McCroskey *et al.* 2006).

Many comments by evaluators indicated that fourth year students battled with lesson planning. This is evident in statements such as the following:

- *You have included a lot on your plan… under specific focus, try to be clear about what the main aspect/objective is that you are trying to achieve.*
- *When writing up lesson plans try to be more focussed so that your lesson is more focused. State exactly what it is that you want to accomplish and what you expect learners to do…*
- *Evidence of some planning… make more of this… more detail help to add depth to the lesson.*
- *Organise and plan who goes to what group when and what they do afterwards…they kept asking the teacher…*
- *It was a good story, but you lost focus… if the group was not this able they might not have picked up the 'ame' sound.*

Whilst it seems reasonable to argue that a first year student may battle with planning, it is quite alarming that most student teachers were criticized for inferior planning throughout the duration of their studies. Whilst this possibly points to "students being students" and them not really being interested in improvement or the planning/admin side of teaching, it could also indicate that they do not really know how to improve their planning. I argue that more detailed knowledge regarding teacher clarity could help student teachers in this regard. This will be highlighted in Chapter 6 as a specific recommendation of this study.

- Ensuring appropriate level & challenge

Before any teacher can begin to explain anything to a learner the teacher must ensure that what she plans to teach is at the appropriate level (Chesebro 2002). Learning builds on previous learning and new knowledge is constructed on the basis of existing knowledge. Furthermore, learning does not happen in a vacuum and student teachers should ensure that they take cognisance of learners' prior knowledge of the lesson topics. They should also consider progression to new (future) knowledge and teach from the known to the unknown. Evaluators commented on this in statements such as the following:

> - *Introduce new words by means of actions and questions…this was rather challenging for the class (started L2 as LoLT this year).*
> - *You expected too much too soon from the children who have never done comic strips prior to today…*

Although the theme of making real-life links was dealt with separately, it must be acknowledged that these themes are fluid and overlap and it is therefore relevant in this instance as well. Learning hooks onto existing knowledge and new knowledge is constructed based on known knowledge. From a social constructivist perspective, it is believed that learners are not empty vessels simply receiving information, but that they possibly have some prior knowledge about a topic or experiences that are in some way related to the topic. It is thus important to allow learners to contribute to the learning situation (Farrell 2009). Furthermore, learning must be relevant. If is not relevant to the learner, there is no purpose nor motivation for learning to take place. Frymier (2002: 83) claims that "if something is relevant, it is related and it is pertinent". Real-life links provide the necessary 'hooks' for learners to understand the relevance of the content for them, and in doing so support learning. They need to build new knowledge on to existing knowledge and it must be relevant to them (Chesebro 2002). It is therefore very important that student teachers realise that they should try to know their learners, because only by knowing and understanding their learners can they plan lessons that are based on their prior knowledge, i.e. lessons that are relevant (Frymier 2002). Relevance helps to keep learners focussed, motivated and interested (Chesebro & Wanzer 2006).

Lesson content should be relevant to the learners, but also provide some challenge at times. It seems that the adaptation phase of the IC model (Figure 2.6) is not clear in the minds of student teachers. Their impression seems to be that they have content to teach, but they seem unable to adapt the content to suit the needs of the learners successfully. The evaluation reports also revealed that there were very seldom situations were learners where challenged. If learners are kept in a comfortable, unchallenged space, the learning opportunities will be minimised, as challenge is a critical element of a successful learning experience because it facilitates learning on a deeper level. Evaluators' comments included instructions like the following:

- *Demand more from them… let them explain in full sentences… why they make that specific suggestion.*
- *You highlighted the words… but you could have challenged them to make their own sentences.*
- *This was a sensible activity… more challenge would have helped.*

Student teachers in this study were often criticised that their lessons were not pitched at the correct level and that it was, more often, too easy. Learners do not respond positively to activities that are too easy because they are not stimulated and get bored quickly. This is most probably the result of the fact that student teachers neglect to consider prior knowledge in their lesson planning. One has to acknowledge that this is quite a challenge, considering that they only spend four weeks in the class during every session. Due to this time constraint the best way to find out what learners know about a topic or what the levels of the learners in general are, would be by asking the mentor teacher. In most cases, the mentor teacher was with the class from the beginning of the year, so she should have been able to guide the student teacher to plan lessons pitched at the appropriate levels, as well as to include some challenge.

- Ensuring learner participation

Classroom communication patterns are different to patterns of general interpersonal interaction (Farrell 2009), because the teacher in a sense directs the communication It is, however, important to recognise the value of and to make sufficient provision for learner participation in classroom communication. Richmond (2002:76) claims that learners “at any age should be encouraged to participate in classroom discussion and talk on occasion”. Comments by external evaluators suggested that fourth year Foundation Phase student

teachers struggled to implement strategies that would encourage learner participation. Typical statements were:

- *Your macro group approach limited overall participation since individual learners answered questions and the rest gradually became restless.*
- *Micro group would have enhanced learner participation… your role… to facilitate, correct and clarify information.*
- *Some learners were not following the lesson - maybe because your contribution was too dominant - teacher centred. Therefor learners became restless towards the end of the lesson.*

Instead, knowledgeable teachers should create opportunities where learners can explore topics with teachers. In other words, learners participate not only by answering questions when appropriate, but they construct new knowledge with teachers through discussion and the sharing of experiences. For example, learner participation supports the clarity of the lesson because through their participation student teachers can gauge whether the learners are following the lesson or not, and if not, make adjustments accordingly. In order for learners to participate meaningfully, the teachers need to make provision for learner participation in their planning. Farrell (2009:41) argues that teachers should consider "how they set up academic tasks and how it impacts the social participation structure of their lessons". Teachers who are, in general, unwilling to communicate might not find this natural and could even avoid considering it, which would then lead to more teacher directed lessons.

- Use of resources

The majority of the fourth year student teachers were criticised for the manner in which they used resources. External evaluators expected them to make efficient use of resources and this expectation was not met, as can be seen in these statements:

- *You moved onto discussion about shapes… this could've been linked to your visuals.*
- *You went to the trouble of making the paddle-puppets, but you did not really use them to create a dialogue.*
- *You could also have had lists of words from which learners had to identify the rhyming couples.*

- Visibility

Visibility is an important element which could affect the clarity of the lessons and it is one aspect which can be improved with minor interventions. Student teachers should consider the size of labels when they use labelling with posters as examples. They often speak about the label but, especially in the Foundation Phase, learners need to see the words so that they can use and recall the words at a later stage. It is important to mention here that in the Foundation Phase learning should be integrated as far as possible. The use of labels in a Numeracy lesson, for example, includes the literacy component and in doing so strengthens the extent of the learning that takes place during the lesson. Other comments pointing to issues related to visibility, were:

> - *Putting the pictures flat on the mat makes it quite difficult to see… making them restless.*
> - *Resources… pictures should have been bigger… given macro group approach.*
> - *Board work: when putting up your flashcards - rather clean the board first…. So that it stands out.*
> - *…print under the pictures should be larger…they need to be able to read it from their desks.*

In summary, various aspects challenged the clarity of the lessons of student teachers. From the results of this qualitative analysis for this specific group of Foundation Phase student teachers, the following inferences can be made:

- The planning of lessons appears to be a major obstacle which influences the clarity of the lessons.
- Student teachers deteriorated over the four years with regard to appropriate level and challenge, learner participation and the use of resources.

This concludes the discussion related to the clarity of the lessons of FP student teachers. The following section will present the analysis and interpretation of the results related to their levels of immediacy in the classroom.

5.4 IMMEDIACY (Q2): ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

This section interprets the qualitative findings related to the levels of immediacy of Foundation Phase student teachers. It aims to answer the following qualitative sub-question: To what extent do external evaluator reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

Section 5.4.1 presents the interpretation of the findings by linking the comments to the themes that emerged from the analysis, and also shows possible progression between the first and the final year. Section 5.4.2 explains how the themes identified from the data set are linked to the existing themes from the literature.

5.4.1 Presentation of the results

The analysis of the evaluation reports revealed that most comments related to the nonverbal immediacy of student teachers. Furthermore, there were comments that can be interpreted in a general sense, such as *rapport* and *engaging*, because it is not clear whether the evaluator refers to verbal or nonverbal immediacy and it could be both. It should also be mentioned that comments such as "good communication skills" were not included in the analysis because they are imprecise and the meaning in practice is not clear.

Table 5.12 indicates that there was an improvement in the levels of immediacy displayed by the student teachers. There was a significant decrease in the number of negative comments over the four years, which, together with a slight increase in the number of positive comments, can suggest that the levels of immediacy behaviours had improved over the years.

Table 5.12 Progression of comments related to teacher immediacy: 2009 - 2012

	2009	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
Positive comments	45	51	52	46
Negative comments	47	22	21	28

However, it should be noted that in the final year evaluators seemed to be more critical as there was a slight decrease in the number of positive comments, as well as a slight increase in

the negative comments between the third and fourth years. Some of the positive comments, for example, related to the theme of *connection/involvement* were:

- ✓ *You interact with the young child with comfort and ease.*
- ✓ *The children clearly connect with you.*
- ✓ *Generally there is a warmth and a clear interest in their learning.*
- ✓ *You have a wonderful rapport with the learners and they relate very well to you.*

However, fourth years were also criticised regarding the same theme. Some of the comments were:

- ✓ *Include the back rows as well.*
- ✓ *Instead of standing all the time, sit and get down to their level.*
- ✓ *Your body language must also do the talking… children pick up our aura very quickly.*
- ✓ *They need to be more aware of your presence.*

However, as was stated in the limitations to this study (Chapter 1), evaluators did not use a standardised form for the evaluation and this could have an effect on the results. Another contributing factor could be that evaluators tended to be more critical as the final evaluation in the fourth year approached. However, the fact that there were more negative than positive comments in the first year and far more positive than negative comments in the final year, supports the argument that evaluators perceived an improvement related to the teacher immediacy behaviours of student teachers.

There was an insignificant difference in the number of positive and negative comments related to the immediacy behaviours of student teachers in 2009 as indicated by Table 5.12. This deviated from the initial clarity analyses where there were far more negative than positive comments. I therefore decided to analyse both the positive and negative comments in the immediacy data set. However, in the interest of practicality, the data set was condensed even further to concentrate on the progression between the first and final years only. A comparison of the concentration of comments related to a specific code may identify aspects where student teachers had improved, but also highlight aspects that remained areas of concern for the evaluators. The following sub-sections present the data related to immediacy by firstly addressing the positive comments and then the negative comments.

5.4.1.1 Positive comments: analysis and interpretation

The following themes emerged from the evaluation reports related to the positive comments about the immediacy behaviours of first and fourth year student teachers (see complete table in Addendum 5.4).

Enthusiasm: Comments relating to the style of interaction and the liveliness of the student teacher were categorised under this heading, for example:

- ✓ *Lovely, lively teaching style (1st year)*
- ✓ *A lively and purposeful approach (4th year)*

Calmness: Whereas the previous theme indicated that enthusiasm was a positive immediacy behaviour; comments also suggested that levels of calmness can also be positive:

- ✓ *You have a sweet, calm manner as you work with children at their activity tables. (1st year)*
- ✓ *Lovely calm lesson where the learners were constantly involved in the learning. (4th year)*

Creativity: Comments relating to the creativity and the expressiveness of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Positive comments were:

- ✓ *Children enjoyed the different ways in which you used your voice. (1st year)*
- ✓ *Well-modulated voice (4th year)*

Rapport: Comments relating to interaction and the engagement of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- ✓ *Interact with them really well (1st year)*
- ✓ *You have a wonderful rapport with the learners and they relate very well to you. (4th year)*

Friendliness: Comments relating to a pleasant disposition of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- ✓ *Friendly, delightful manner (1st year)*
- ✓ *Lovely friendly teaching style (4th year)*

Confidence: Comments relating to the confidence of student teachers were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- ✓ *Confidently directed the activity (1st year)*
- ✓ *You've developed into a lovely, confident teacher. (4th year)*

Use of names: Interestingly, fourth year student teacher did not receive any commendations regarding their use of learners' names: Typical statements made for first years were:

- ✓ *Beginning to use their names (1st year)*
- ✓ *You use so many names (1st year)*

The following two themes did not emerge from the analysis of the evaluation reports of first year student teachers, however they received noteworthy mention in the evaluation reports of fourth year student teachers. This may point to the fact that there was improvement in these areas.

Encouragement: Comments relating to the manner in which student teachers praise and encourage learners were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- ✓ *You consistently show sensitivity and you praise learners often. (4th year)*
- ✓ *I like your continual positive comments. (4th year)*

Comfortable style: Comments relating to the style with which student teachers conduct themselves, were categorised under this heading. External Evaluators commented on this using statements such as the following:

- ✓ *You seem comfortable in the classroom situation (4th year)*
- ✓ *An easy manner (4th year)*

The results indicate that there was a shift in the immediacy behaviours of student teachers. Initially the positive comments focused more on the teaching style of student teachers, whereas the positive comments in the final year suggested that student teachers had developed the ability to engage learners in the learning and that there was a stronger feeling of rapport between student teachers and learners.

The ability to engage learners in the lesson and to foster a rapport with them is very important in the Foundation Phase classroom. The difference between the positive comments given to first years and fourth years could point to the fact in the first year student teachers are very

concerned with *what they have to do during the lesson*, in other words the execution of the lesson.

The following comments indicate that student teachers were more involved and connected with learners in the final year:

- ✓ *You interact with the young child with comfort and ease.*
- ✓ *The children clearly connect with you.*
- ✓ *Pleased to see that you walked around and assisted where necessary.*

The change in the focus of the comments for the fourth years may indicate that student teachers over time had managed to move away from focussing on their role in the execution of the lesson in order to place a larger emphasis on the learner and the learning that was taking place. This shift towards fostering a stronger rapport and subsequent relationship between student teacher and learners is evident in the comments related to verbal as well as nonverbal communication behaviours of student teachers.

In the first year, most of the comments were about their nonverbal communication behaviours. However, in the fourth and final year there is evidence that student teachers were also verbally more immediate. Although most comments still referred to nonverbal immediacy, the code *praise and encouragement* points to the fact that student teachers in the fourth year were possibly more focused on the learners and therefore there were more comments on how they had used language to praise and encourage learners throughout the lesson. This aspect was not evident in the evaluation reports of first year student teachers. The following comments indicate that student teachers were verbally more immediate in the final year:

- ✓ *There is also encouragement.*
- ✓ *You consistently show sensitivity and you praise learners often.*
- ✓ *I like your continual positive comments.*
- ✓ *I like the way that you have encouraged the learners.*
- ✓ *Good to praise them for their efforts.*

5.4.1.2 Negative comments: analysis and interpretation

The following themes emerged from the evaluation reports related to the negative comments about the immediacy behaviours of first and fourth year student teachers (see complete table in Addendum 5.4).

Connection: Comments relating to connection and the involvement of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Typical statements for connection were:

- *Think more about connecting with the learners. (1st years)*
- *They need to be more aware of your presence. (4th years)*

Expression: Comments relating to the use of voice and the expressive nature of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Typical statements for this were:

- *Very quiet, but with confidence and experience you will become more outgoing and animated. (1st year)*
- *Use full volume only for crowd control. Teaching is not crowd control. (4th year)*

Enthusiasm: Comments relating to the style of interaction and the liveliness of the student teacher were categorised under this heading. Typical statements included:

- *(during songs) It would have been nice to see you looking enthusiastic too. (1st year)*
- *Try and instil more life into your lesson, it was dreary. (4th year)*

Nervousness: Comments suggesting that student teachers displayed nervous behaviours were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- *Started off a bit still in your manner, probably feeling nervous. (1st year)*
- *Gradually you will also relax into it so that you can really enjoy your teaching. (4th year)*

Smiling: Comments suggesting that student teachers tend to forget to smile were categorised under this heading. Typical statements by evaluators were:

- *Remember to smile (1st year)*
- *You are nervous and upset about the chaos in the area (riots) but remember to smile. (4th year)*

The following themes did not emerge from the analysis of the evaluation reports of first year student teachers; however, there were quite a number of comments in this regard in the evaluation reports of the fourth year student teachers.

Assertiveness: Comments suggesting that fourth year student teachers seem insecure, were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- *I hope that you are able to be assertive and firm when necessary.*
- *I'm just concerned that you seem insecure. Take charge.*
- *Don't hesitate to assert yourself as the teacher.*

The following themes did not emerge from the analysis of the evaluation reports of fourth year student teachers, however, they received noteworthy mention in the evaluations reports of first year student teachers. This may point to the fact that there was improvement in these areas.

Responding: Comments relating to manner in which first year student teachers respond to learners were categorised under this heading. Typical statements for this were:

- *Remember to be flexible enough to respond fully to their answers or comments.*
- *…the little boy… very enthusiastic, but you tended to dismiss him because the movie's interpretation was different.*

Use of names: Comments relating to manner in which first year student teachers used the names of learners during lessons were categorised under this heading. Typical statements included:

- *Think about using their names more.*
- *Use their names more.*

Courtesy: Comments relating to the manner in which first year student teachers deal with the learners during lessons were categorised under this heading. Typical statements were:

- *Remember* please *and* thank you *throughout.*
- *Ask them to move - never drag a child to where you want them.*

Formal: Comments relating to formal style of first year student teachers during lessons were categorised under this heading. External evaluator comments included the following:

- *Initially a bit still and formal.*
- *… seems to be quite a formal classroom…*

Pace: Comments relating to pace with first year student teachers were categorised under this heading. Statements such as the following were made:

- *I'm sure you will relax, slow down.*
- *You have to calm down a little.*

Eye-contact: There was only one comment related to this heading:

- *Do be careful, though, not to lose eye-contact with the children.*

There seems to be a possible improvement in the immediacy behaviours of student teachers over the duration of the study (see Addendum 5.4). In the first year, eleven codes related to inappropriate teacher immediacy behaviours were identified, while in the final year only seven codes emerged from the comments. A key area of concern remained the issue of connecting more with the learners and showing more involvement in the lessons. Student teachers seem to find it challenging to narrow (lessen) the distance between themselves and the learners, i.e. to be more immediate. Most of the comments indicate that they should give more attention to aspects of nonverbal immediacy (such as body language), and to how they position themselves in the room in relation to the learners. Comments that indicated that student teachers must be more involved and connected with learners, were for example:

- *Think more about connecting with the learners.*
- *Think more about your presence in the room.*
- *You seem to be a bit distant, observing rather than participating.*
- *Think about being more immediate in the room.*
- *Your body language must also do the talking… children pick up our aura very quickly.*
- *Include the back rows as well.*
- *They need to be more aware of your presence.*

An aspect of immediacy which challenged first year student teachers was the expressive use of voice. Specific comments suggested that student teachers need to work on voice expression were for example:

- *Work on more volume.*
- *Use your voice to connect with them - more volume.*
- *Very quiet, but with confidence and experience you will become more outgoing and animated.*

However, in the final year there were fewer negative comments in this regard, which may indicate that over time student teachers find it less challenging to use their voices more expressively.

Interestingly, none of the first year student teachers were criticized for not being assertive enough, but final year student teachers received such criticism. This may be because evaluators expected less confidence from first year student teachers, but more from final year students. It may also be possible that student teachers experienced behaviour management problems, which needed a more assertive approach.

The following comments indicate concerns regarding levels of assertiveness:

- *I hope that you are able to be assertive and firm when necessary.*
- *You are not being assertive enough.*
- *Try to be more assertive.*
- *I wanted to see you more in control.*
- *I'm just concerned that you seem insecure. Take charge.*
- *Don't hesitate to assert yourself as the teacher.*

In summary, there was an improvement over the study period in student teachers' levels of immediacy. Results suggest that overall they showed increased levels of immediacy in the final year. The positive comments related to level of teacher immediacy of student teachers suggest that there was a positive development specifically in the sense that they were more engaging and they seemed to be more connected to learners in the final year, and that they gave more verbal praise and encouragement. However, although they seemed to be more immediate in the classroom there are still areas of concern, specifically regarding their level of involvement. Even though student teachers had improved over time, they seemed to struggle to connect with the learners. Therefore, although this improvement should be recognised, it is important to mention that the evaluation reports highlighted the importance of involvement and connections in order to develop the relationship between student teacher and learner through interpersonal communication.

5.4.2 Discussion of the findings on teacher immediacy

From the evaluation reports, it would seem evident that student teachers' use of immediate teacher behaviours improved over the years. In the final year, the majority of the comments related to teacher immediacy were positive, however, as can be expected, there were still some areas of concern. These are of particular importance and the following discussion will subsequently focus on the aspects that have a negative influence on immediacy, both verbal and nonverbal.

However, prior to the discussion on the immediacy of student teachers it should be noted that, as was the case with clarity, these student teachers received no formal instruction on teacher immediacy. There might have been incidental mention of some of the aspects highlighted in this study, for example, lecturers might comment on the importance of eye-contact and expression in the voice for effective teaching and learning, but it would have been purely incidental. The following sections will discuss the findings related to verbal immediacy and nonverbal immediacy according to the components of immediacy as categorised by Wrench *et al.* (2008). It is necessary to show how the themes that emerged from the data can be linked to the categories previously described in the literature. These linkages are set out in Table 5.13 below.

Table 5.13: Linking themes that emerged from the data to existing categories in the literature

Components of immediacy described in the literature (Wrench *et al.* 2008)		**Themes influencing the levels of immediacy of student teachers that emerged from the data analysis**
VERBAL IMMEDIACY		Responding
		Use of names
		Assertiveness
NONVERBAL IMMEDIACY	Gestures & body movement	Connection & involvement
		Nervous
	Facial expression and eye-behaviour	Eye-contact
		Smile
	Voice	Voice/expression
		Enthusiasm
		Formal
		Nervous
		Pace

5.4.2.1 Verbal immediacy

Verbal immediacy (as discussed in Section 2.3.4.1) relates to the specific verbal behaviours that teachers use to decrease the distance between themselves and the learners. Verbal immediacy is not as important as nonverbal immediacy (Richmond 2002), because no verbal message can exist without a nonverbal message, whereas nonverbal messages can be communicated without verbal messages. However, because there were some comments related to the verbal immediacy of student teachers these will be included in the discussion that follows.

Initially, student teachers seemed to battle with their responses to the learners. The interaction between learner and teacher is determined by the way in which they respond to each other. Comments suggested that the communication styles of first year student teachers did not yet include two-way communication and that subsequently it resulted in a more teacher-directed style rather than a learner-centred one. There are certain stages in a lesson that depend on ongoing communication between student teacher and learners in order to facilitate learning. First year student teachers seemed to find it challenging to sustain the conversation. McCroskey *et al.* (2006:38) state that learners "really do learn as a function of talking", but they posit that there are other advantages related to talking (or IPC) that should be considered in the classroom environment: (a) through talking the teacher can assess levels of understanding and clarify where needed; (b) talking helps to reduce the tension in the classroom; and (c) learners learn communication skills when they are allowed to talk to each other. Another aspect of verbal immediacy that influences the levels of closeness between teacher and learners is the use of names (Richmond 2002). First year student teachers seemed to struggle to use the names of the learners during their lessons. This could be because they found it difficult to memorise the names in such a short time. However, these aspects did not feature in the evaluation reports of the fourth year students.

What is noteworthy, though, is that some fourth year student teachers still did not come across as assertive enough. This can be problematic, because teachers who are not assertive are often perceived as being less in control of the learning environment (McCroskey *et al.* 2006). Learners tend to view assertive teachers positively and this leads to increased affect or liking of the teacher as well as the subject. It stands to reason that if learners like the teacher

and the subject they are less likely to disrupt the learning environment and behaviour management may be relatively easier.

5.4.2.2. Nonverbal immediacy

Nonverbal immediacy is an essential teaching tool. Richmond (2002:70) states that the "primary function of teachers' nonverbal behavior (*sic*) in the classroom is to improve affect or liking for the subject matter, teacher, and class, and to increase the desire to learn more about the subject matter". As explained previously (Section 5.4.2.1), nonverbal immediacy is more important than verbal immediacy and it is therefore not surprising that there were noticeably more comments related to nonverbal than verbal immediacy. Considering that the evaluators were not informed at any stage what they had to report on and because (as explained in Section 3.9.2) they did not use a standardised form, the fact that they commented more on the nonverbal aspects supports the argument that nonverbal immediacy is more important than verbal immediacy.

Most of the criticism for first and final years was related to their use of *gestures and body-movement*. The evaluation of their teaching skills is naturally a stressful situation, it is therefore not surprising that first and fourth year student teachers were nervous and that evaluators noted this in the evaluation reports. However, many comments suggest that their body language, which is enacted via gestures and body-movement, was nonverbally non-immediate, for example: *your body language must also do the talking… children pick up our aura very quickly.*

As explained in Section 2.3.4.1, nonverbal non-immediacy is a problem in a classroom, because it increases the distance between the teacher and learners and will have a negative impact on the level of teaching and learning (Richmond 2002). Student teachers were often criticised that they excluded the learners in the back rows, which then possibly indicates that they refrained from moving towards the back of the classroom. Movement is, according to McCroskey *et al.* (2006:156) an "attention getter" and teachers who refrain from moving are described as boring.

The level of facial expression and eye-behaviour of student teachers improved over the four year period. Eye contact is an important element of nonverbal immediacy (McCroskey *et al.* 2006) that most student teachers managed to use, however, many of them were reminded that they needed to smile and look cheerful. This behaviour could be the result of the stressful situation, and after four years, they seemed to cope better with the stress of the evaluation session.

Results suggest that student teachers also struggled with the use of voice to increase immediacy in the classroom. First year student teachers were often criticised for speaking too softly. As discussed previously in Section 5.3.1 regarding clarity, the use of the voice in the classroom is crucial as it assists with keeping the learners focused. There are many noise interferences from outside the classroom and teachers need to use their voices to maintain the focus of the learners inside the classroom. However, balance is important. Teachers should make use of a variety of volume levels in the classroom. Fourth years seemed more in control of volume, however at times student teachers were criticised for speaking too loudly. Another factor related to voice is the level of expressiveness and enthusiasm that is executed. McCroskey *et al.* (2006:157) posit that the "single most negative nonverbal communication behavior (*sic*) a teacher can perform is to speak with a lack of vocal variety". First year student teachers were often criticised that their lessons were boring and dreary and most of these comments disappeared towards the final year. After four years student teachers seemed to be more enthusiastic during the presentation of their lessons.

In summary, based on the analysis of the evaluation reports, the levels of immediacy of student teachers seemed to have improved from the first to the final year. As expected, most comments were related to their use of nonverbal immediacy in the classroom. A key area of concern is the fact that after four years a prominent concern for evaluators was the fact that student teachers seemed "removed" from the learners. In other words, their levels of nonverbal immediacy may not contribute to an effective learning environment.

What is important, however, is to take cognisance of the fact that based on the analysis of the evaluation reports of evaluators, fourth year student teachers appeared to be more immediate in classrooms than first year student teachers. This is significant, because the increased levels

of immediacy were most probably not because of the subjects offered as part of the B Ed degree, but rather because of exposure to the classroom environment.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse and interpret the qualitative data collected over the four-year period. As mentioned previously (Section 3.2) it was important to follow the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers over an extended period of time in order to investigate possible changes that may occur. The focus of the qualitative phase of this study was on the development of the student teachers' instructional communication behaviours.

In qualitative investigations, it is important to place emphasis on the specific procedures followed during the process of analysis. Therefore a large part of this chapter was dedicated to procedural matters. As argued in Section 5.2 qualitative data analysis is a lengthy and iterative process and the additional feature of the longitudinal investigation made it even more so. However, this was done with a very specific intention: clarity and immediacy (mentioned before) were not, at the time this study was conducted, formally included in the teacher preparation programme at the university where the study was conducted. The assumption amongst faculty staff was that these aspects would develop during teaching practice when student teachers are peripheral participators in a specific situated learning experience. The results of the quantitative phase show that, in general, although some changes occurred over the four years, there were still areas of challenge.

The first qualitative sub-question, which this chapter aimed to answer, was:

To what extent do external evaluators' reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

The results from the qualitative analysis related to clarity showed that over four years some aspects of the clarity behaviours of FP student teachers seemed to improve, whilst others remained problematic, or even deteriorated.

Aspects that improved were the student teachers' ability to use questioning in their lessons, as well as the way in which they dealt with instructions in the Foundation Phase classroom. An aspect that remained stable was their inability to make real-life links for the learners.

However, lesson planning appeared to be a major obstacle that influenced the clarity of the lessons. Moreover, student teachers deteriorated over the four years with regard to appropriate level & challenge, learner participation and the use of resources. They seemed to be unable to plan lessons that are pitched at the correct level for the learners, but they also could not incorporate challenge into their lessons. Another aspect that they battled with was the ability to include learners in the lessons. As was explained in 4.6.2, these FP student teachers were relatively low in their levels of WTC in general, and it did not improve over the four-year period. This may be a contributing factor to the extent of this problem. The fact that they deteriorated in their ability to make proper use of resources is a cause for concern. However, it is impossible to speculate about the reason for this.

The second qualitative sub-question this chapter aimed to answer was:

To what extent do external evaluator's reports reflect growth in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

As explained in Section 5.4.2, the levels of immediacy of FP student teachers seemed to have improved from the first to the final year. Foundation Phase fourth year student teachers appeared to be more immediate in classrooms than did first year student teachers. This is significant, because it is most probably not because of the subjects offered as part of the B Ed degree, but rather by exposure to the classroom environment.

However, an area of concern was the fact that after four years a prominent concern for evaluators was the fact that student teachers seemed "distant and removed" from the learners. In other words, their levels of nonverbal immediacy did not contribute to a more effective

learning environment by pulling the learners into the learning experience. This problem seems to underline the problem also experienced in terms of student teachers' clarity behaviours, in that they failed to include the learners in the learning experiences. The following chapter will conclude by discussing the findings of the study, as well as the contributions and the limitations. Lastly, recommendations for future research are made.

CHAPTER SIX:

CONCLUSION

When you have completed 95 percent of your journey, you are only halfway there.

Japanese Proverb

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the classroom communication behaviours of student teachers over an extended period. Classroom communication is a key element of effective teaching and learning, as it connects content and pedagogical content knowledge. As teacher and researcher, I share the opinion of McCroskey *et al.* (2002) that effective teaching can be compared to a three-legged stool: content and pedagogical knowledge represent two of the legs, but for stability the third leg, classroom communication, is critical. My personal motivation for conducting this study originated from the realisation that the importance of classroom communication is rarely highlighted in teacher education, and consequently it is seldom explicitly included in teacher education curricula. There may be an implicit assumption that 'communication' and ‘classroom communication’ are taught in language modules, but this is not the case.

This chapter presents a conclusion of the different sets of findings by synthesising the quantitative and qualitative findings as presented respectively in Chapters 4 and 5, with reference to the main aim and specific objectives of the study as stated in Chapter 1. Section 6.2 presents a general overview of the study, followed by a summary and synthesis of the findings in Section 6.3 in order to address the main research question and sub-questions. Section 6.4 highlights the contribution of the study to teacher education in general and to teacher preparation at the specific Western Cape university where the study was conducted, while Section 6.5 discusses the implications of the findings specifically for the Faculty of Education at this university, as well as for teacher education in general. The limitations to the study and possibilities for future research are dealt with in Sections 6.6 and 6.7. I share my final thoughts in Section 6.8.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 presented the introduction to the study by explaining the rationale and the motivation for the study. It also provided the necessary background within which the investigation took place. The graphic representation aimed to position the study and highlighted linkages between classroom communication education and teacher education (preparation), which the study intended to address.

The intent of this study was to investigate the process of learning to teach not from the conventional education or teacher education perspective, but rather from the more unconventional perspective, that of communication. Therefore, Chapter 2 had to provide an in-depth review of the literature related to classroom communication. Thus, the literature review covered two specific areas within the field of communication education, namely the development of interpersonal communication and instructional communication. This specific focus on communication related research was necessary, because the intent of the study was two-fold: firstly, to investigate how the perceptions of FP student teachers regarding their communication abilities developed over time and, secondly, to investigate possible trends in the use of instructional communication during the execution of lessons during teaching practice.

Chapter 3 addressed the research design and methodology. As discussed in Section 3.3, a mixed method design proved to be the best strategy as an investigation of classroom communication had to acknowledge two important but distinct areas of study, namely developmental communication and instructional communication. Developmental communication researchers (see Section 3.2) usually employ quantitative longitudinal methods because it is the most appropriate to investigate the impact of time on interpersonal development. Instructional communication researchers, however, are more interested in the impact of communication on learning and how it is used in teaching; and therefore the use of qualitative methods was more appropriate. In this study, developmental communication relates to the interpersonal communication development of FP student teachers, whilst

instructional communication relates to their teaching skills, specifically to the levels of clarity and immediacy in their lessons.

Chapter 4 presented an analysis and interpretation of the quantitative data collected. As discussed in Section 4.1 the quantitative data was collected by using four self-report measures that student teachers completed annually over the four-year period. This produced a relatively large data set. Therefore, from a practical perspective it made sense to first present various waves of the results of each measure. Thereafter, the chapter continued with an analysis and interpretation of the results for each individual measure in Section 4.3 as well as a discussion of the progression related to each measure. Finally, an interpretation of the relevance of the results for the specific context, namely the situated teaching practice experience, was discussed.

Chapter 5 dealt with the qualitative phase of the study. Due to the possible subjective nature of qualitative research, it was important to start with a detailed description of the procedures that were followed during the analysis. The sections that followed presented the analysis and interpretation of the findings related to each qualitative sub-question.

6.3 ADDRESSING THE OVER-ARCHING RESEARCH QUESTION

Following the data analysis and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data sets (Chapters 4 and 5), this section serves to combine the findings in an attempt to address the following overarching research question: To what extent do perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of a B Ed degree?

I decided, as explained in Chapter 3 (Section 3.2), that a longitudinal mixed methods design would be best suited to an investigation of this nature. Essentially, I wanted to understand whether the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers[54]

[54] Initially, the study included student teachers from the FP and the ISP. However, due to reasons explained in Section 3.7 the ISP was excluded and the investigation focussed on the FP student teachers.

change for the better over time, bearing in mind that classroom communication was not included in the B Ed degree programme at the time when I embarked on this research.

The quantitative phase followed a longitudinal survey design in order to investigate the effect of time on the development of the perceptions of FP student teachers regarding their communication behaviours. Their self-perceptions were surveyed annually with the following measures[55]:

- Nonverbal-immediacy Scale – Self-report (NIS-S)
- Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)
- Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC)
- Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale (SPCC)

The quantitative phase investigated the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers and followed a case study design in order to investigate possible changes over time. This phase attempted to answer the following sub-question:

To what extent do FP student teachers experience change in their communication behaviours over the course of a B Ed degree?

In the qualitative phase of the study, I attempted to answer the following two qualitative sub-questions:

- To what extent do external evaluator's reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?
- To what extent do external evaluator's reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

Chapters 4 and 5 presented the results and the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative investigations in detail. The following sub-sections conclude by discussing the overall findings of each phase respectively, followed by an attempt to converge the results.

[55] These measures were all developed by researchers who are, or at one time were, faculty members or graduate students at West Virginia University (http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/measures/).

6.3.1 Changes in FP students teachers' perceptions regarding their communication behaviours

The quantitative phase of this study investigated the development over time of the perceptions of FP student teachers regarding their communication skills. As explained previously (Section 1.7.1), the perception one has regarding one's own ability or skills does not necessarily translate into observable behaviour. However, it would certainly affect the choice to engage or not in classroom communication and interpersonal interactions, and it is this choice that would influence not only the development of communication skills in general, but also the nature of the development of interpersonal relationships. The relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher was of particular importance for this phase of the study.

As discussed in Chapter 4, time had, in certain instances, (see Table 6.1 below) some impact and in others no impact on the perceptions of Foundation Phase student teachers regarding their individual communication behaviours. This meant that after four years they did not feel that their communication behaviours had changed. Table 6.1 below presents the instances where no changes were recorded and also the instances where positive or negative changes were recorded.

Table 6.1 Changes in the perceptions of FP student teachers regarding their communication behaviours

	NIS-S	**PRCA**	**WTC**	**SPCC**
2009-2010	none	deteriorated slightly	None	improved
2010-2011	none	improved	None	none
2011-2012	none	deteriorated slightly	None	none

Nonverbal immediacy (NIS-S)

The results show that time had no effect on the perceptions of student teachers regarding their nonverbal immediacy behaviours. In other words, after considerable time spent situated in the classroom, student teachers still did not alter their perceptions of their level of nonverbal immediacy behaviours and possibly subsequently also did not recognise the importance of

nonverbal immediacy. However, it is possible that nonverbal immediacy behaviours can improve, given the right intervention.

Another interesting result was that this group of FP student teachers had a particularly low impression of their nonverbal immediacy behaviours (see Section 4.3.1, Figure 4.1). As discussed in Chapter 2, nonverbal immediacy is even more important than verbal immediacy, because it assists in bringing teacher and learners closer. This is especially important in the Foundation Phase, because it is here where one expects the caring, nurturing teacher. It is important to bear in mind that low levels of nonverbal immediacy are not associated with low levels of care and nurturing behaviours. However, student teachers that are not as immediate create the impression of being less caring and nurturing in the classroom and this may negatively influence the classroom atmosphere. Furthermore, because lower levels of immediacy signal a reluctance to engage in interaction, this may, as discussed in Section 4.5.1, negatively affect the development of the relationship between student teacher and mentor - a relationship which is crucial in the process of learning to become a teacher.

Communication apprehension (PRCA-24)

The results of this study confirm conjectures in the literature that an individual's level of CA could be trait-based and therefore, as communibiology (see Section 2.2.3.2) suggests, have a strong genetic origin. The relevance of this for teacher education is that if Foundation Phase student teachers enter the B Ed programme being highly apprehensive about communication in general, they are likely to remain so, but may also experience high levels of communication anxiety in a variety of contexts, such as interpersonal and public speaking contexts. On average, student teachers in this group were more apprehensive about communication in general than the average population. Although it is evident from Table 6.1, and also Figure 4.2 that there were some changes recorded, it is important to bear in mind that in the first and final years the scores were almost unchanged.

Furthermore, FP student teachers in this study indicated relatively high levels of apprehension related to the context of public speaking. Also, after four years of regular exposure to public speaking-related situations they did not report less anxiety. In other words, the general assumption that their anxiety related to public speaking would get better with time

and more practice, is not necessarily true. Apart from the 32 weeks of teaching practice experience, students are required in many subjects in the B Ed course to do regular presentations resembling public speaking contexts. Even this did not result in student teachers feeling more confident about their public speaking skills. Although public speaking skills are not crucial in the teaching profession, it should be kept in mind that it is possible that student teachers can experience the evaluation sessions in the same way as public speaking situations due to an increase in anxiety about the evaluation. In other words, their levels of apprehension related to public speaking may, as argued in Section 4.6.4, negatively influence their teaching and subsequently the mark awarded for the lesson itself.

On average, student teachers in this study were also not comfortable about interpersonal communication. Although there was a slight improvement, they can be regarded as slightly more anxious than normal about interpersonal interactions in general. After four years, 28%[56] of these student teachers can still be considered highly apprehensive about communication in this context, which may influence the development of their teaching skills (Section 4.5.2).

Willingness to communicate (WTC)

As was the case with NIS-S, the results of this study show that time had no impact on the perceptions of the student teachers regarding their WTC in general. Also, as indicated in Figure 4.5 (Section 4.3.3), the average level of willingness to communicate for the group was particularly low, which may influence their development as teachers on various levels, as discussed in Section 4.6.

There was, however, improvement in only one area related to their willingness to communicate – after the four-year period these FP student teachers felt more comfortable to communicate with strangers. From this can be inferred that the exposure to different environments during teaching practice sessions, in combination with various group-work related activities at the university, may have had a positive impact in this context. However, there was no change in student teachers' willingness to communicate in interpersonal contexts and this has implications for their development as teachers, as discussed in Section 4.6.1.

[56] See Section 4.2.2

Self-perceived communication competence (SPCC)

As indicated in Table 6.1 and discussed in Section 4.3.4, there was an improvement in the self-perception of student teachers regarding their communication competence from the first to the second year. Although the reasons are not clear, it is possible to infer that exposure to a variety of communication-related activities may have contributed to the positive change in this regard. Alternatively, it may rather be an indication that prior to their entry into the degree programme they had had limited exposure to communication-related activities and that their response in the first year had been based on a possible inaccurate self-perception.

The following sub-section will conclude the findings related to the qualitative phase of the study.

6.3.2 Changes in the instructional communication behaviours of FP students teachers as perceived by external evaluators

The qualitative phase investigated the development of the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers over time. The findings are presented according to the research sub-questions.

Q1: To what extent do external evaluator's reports reflect change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of clarity?

It is clear that there were various challenges that influenced the clarity of the lessons of FP student teachers (Section 5.3.2). The following inferences can be made:

- The planning of lessons appears to be a major obstacle influencing the clarity of the lessons.
- Student teachers deteriorated with regard to appropriate level & challenge, learner participation and the use of resources.

Overall, when placed within the model of clarity as developed by Chesebro (2002), there seems to be very little change or improvement (according to the evaluation reports by external lecturers) in the manner in which student teachers coped or dealt with the issues related to clarity over the four years (see Table 5.13). In addition, they seemed to battle more with verbal clarity than with structural clarity.

A contribution of this study, as explained in Section 5.3, is that the themes that emerged during the analysis of the qualitative data can be described as possible influences on the components of teacher clarity in Chesebro's model (see Table 5.10). When I focussed on the changes related to these themes between the first and the fourth year, one noticeable trend emerged regarding verbal clarity, i.e. FP student teachers from the first year through to the final year struggled mainly with the way in which they used *explanations and examples* in their lessons (Table 5.13). However, it emerged that there were improvements in some aspects that influence their use of *explanations and examples*, but also that other aspects remained challenging.

There were improvements in the way in which FP student teachers dealt with the following aspects: questioning, instructions, practical and concrete examples and explanations. Fourth year FP student teachers were still criticised regarding their use of questioning and the way in which they gave instructions, but there were no comments to suggest that the examples they used needed to be more practical and concrete or that they struggled with giving clear instructions. Furthermore, the ability to make real-life links for the learners during the lessons seemed to still affect the outcomes of lessons.

Two aspects which seemed to have deteriorated over the period are the ability of FP student teachers to plan lessons that are pitched at the appropriate level and which include challenge, as well as the ability to plan lessons aimed at encouraging learner participation. Although this could be interpreted as a negative result, one should caution that the reason for this deterioration is not clear. Various factors could have been at play, for example, external evaluators might have been more lenient with first years and have higher expectations of fourth year student teachers. In addition to this, the mentor teachers in the Grade R classes might have provided more guidance in this respect, because they anticipated that first years

would need more help. However, the value of these results lies in the fact that 67% of student teachers in their fourth year could not pitch lessons appropriately and 53% of them still battled to include learners in the learning. This indicates that these aspects require more focused attention in terms of instruction in the degree programme.

From a structural clarity perspective there seemed to be some improvement in the way in which FP student teachers addressed the issue of time planning in their lessons. However, despite the fact that 53% were still criticised in this regard in their fourth year, this is a noticeable improvement from the initial 80% who received negative comments about time planning. FP student teachers also improved in their ability to plan lessons that showed consideration to issues related to procedure. However, as mentioned previously, *planning* of lessons appears to be a major obstacle influencing the clarity of lessons and should be regarded as the starting point in an attempt to address the development of teacher clarity. One aspect of structural clarity that seemed to worsen between the first and fourth year was student teachers' ability to use resources in their lessons. As discussed in Section 5.3, 73% of final year FP student teachers received negative comments in this regard and it is clear that they should have been given much more guidance on how to use resources, particularly in the higher grades of the Foundation Phase.

Q2: To what extent do external evaluator's reports reflect growth/change in the instructional communication behaviours of FP student teachers in terms of immediacy?

Based on the discussion of the results presented in Section 5.4.1, FP student teachers seemed to be more immediate in the classroom in the final year than they were in the first and this can be regarded as an improvement. As expected, most comments related to their use of nonverbal immediacy in the classroom. Despite the improvement, a key area of concern remains the fact that after four years external evaluators still mention that student teachers seemed to be "removed" from the learners. This implies that their levels of nonverbal immediacy may not be conducive to an effective learning environment.

What is important, however, is to take cognisance of the fact that, based on the analysis of the evaluation reports, fourth year student teachers appeared to be more immediate in classrooms than first year student teachers. This is significant, because it is most probably not as a result of the subjects offered in the B Ed degree programme, but rather due to the situated exposure to the classroom environment during teaching practice over the four-year period.

The following section combines the results from the quantitative and qualitative phase.

6.3.3 Conclusions related to the over-arching research question

This section aims to address the overarching question posed in Chapter 1: To what extent do perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers change over the course of a B Ed degree?

The results from this longitudinal investigation initially painted a rather negative picture related to changes in the perceptions related to the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers.

From an *interpersonal communication perspective*, there was one noticeable change: the self-perceived communication competence of FP student teachers improved between the first and second year. However, as discussed in Section 4.4, because this improvement did not continue in the following years, I surmise that the improvement was not necessarily the result of the subjects taught in the B Ed degree, but rather that this took place because student teachers were initially not aware of their perceptions of their abilities. In other words, at the time when the student teachers completed the first wave of the survey they possibly had had limited exposure to situations that require regular communication. For example, some of them were matriculants in 2008; others took time off before embarking on a study programme; others were even stay-at-home mothers who raised families. Be that as it may, I suspect that they completed the first survey of self-perceived communication competence without really knowing what they would and would not be able to do. However, by the time they completed the second wave they had been exposed to eight weeks of teaching practice and had numerous opportunities to engage in group discussions with peers, as well as to do

presentations in front of their peers. Therefore, by the time they completed the second wave of SPCC I suspect they had a better understanding of their own abilities, which translated into the noticeable difference in results. However, the fact that between the second and the final year no further changes occurred confirms my supposition that they were not aware of their communication behaviours. These results of also confirmed that the B Ed degree programme at the time did not contribute to the development of their perceptions regarding their communication abilities.

From an *instructional communication perspective*, there were positive changes in some areas, however results also indicate that there were aspects of clarity that did not improve over the four-year period. In fact, as explained in Section 5.3, at times student teachers seemed to deteriorate in certain areas. Again, this could be because external evaluators had higher expectations of fourth year student teachers. However, this does point to the fact that after four years of a degree programme, which includes 32 weeks of situated learning in a classroom experience, fourth year student teachers still experienced significant challenges related to clarity. On a more positive note, there were positive changes related to levels of immediacy. The results showed that, in general, final year FP student teachers displayed higher levels of immediacy in the classroom than first years. However, there were cases were they remained removed and distant from the learners.

This brings me to my *first* overall conclusion. As indicated at the beginning of this section, the initial interpretation of the results paints a negative picture. There is little improvement in the perceptions of these student teachers about their interpersonal communication behaviours and, although there were improvements related to clarity and immediacy behaviours, it is clear that there are still various challenges in this respect. In other words, it would then seem to indicate that the four-year degree programme, including 32 weeks of situated learning teaching practice experience, did not have such a significant effect on the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers.

However, if one considers both impersonal and instructional models of communication behaviours and the requirements for competence in both, then these results are indeed positive. This study was carried out specifically with the understanding that no information

regarding interpersonal or instructional communication was presented to these Foundation Phase student teachers in any specific module or subject.

However, referring to the work of McCroskey and Richmond (1996), communication competence depends on three requisites: firstly, one needs to possess the tools/instrument (i.e. should be able to speak); secondly, one needs to have an affinity for communication (i.e. should enjoy communicating with others); and thirdly, one needs knowledge about the process itself (Section 2.3.2).

From an interpersonal communication perspective this study shows that, assuming that all student teachers enter the degree programme with the first requisite (i.e. they can speak), few of them possibly possess the second requirement, namely that they enjoy the act of communicating. I make this inference based on the results, which indicate that, after four years of study, they:

- have a very low perception of their nonverbal immediacy behaviours;
- display higher levels of communication apprehension than is expected from the average population;
- have below average levels of willingness to communicate in general; and
- they have an average perception of their communication competence.

If one considers that overall there were minimal changes in student teachers' perceptions of their interpersonal communication behaviour in general over the four years, then the importance of the third requisite for IPC, namely knowledge about the process, becomes particularly relevant. This also challenges conventional wisdom that these skills ‘come with time’. Clearly, they do not. The Foundation Phase B.Ed. degree programme, at the time this study was conducted, did not address topics related to the IPC process and specifically regarding the importance of IPC in teaching and learning. The study attempted to highlight, by presenting a detailed overview of literature related to IPC (see Section 2.2), that IPC competence is important in effective teaching and learning. The quantitative phase of the study clearly indicates that knowledge regarding IPC is important to bring about change in the perceptions of student teachers related to their communication abilities. The assumption is

that changes in perception will encourage more participation in communication-related activities and subsequently contribute to improvements in IPC competence.

Similarly, with regard to an instructional communication perspective, one can maintain that student teachers have the tools and that they must have some affinity for interacting in the instructional context, because they all completed the four-year degree. However, without particular knowledge of the process of instructional communication and of the importance of clarity and immediacy for instructional communication competence, the development of their competence in instructional communication is not as noticeable as it should be. Although there was improvement in their instructional communication behaviours over the four years, the evaluation reports still highlighted several challenges in this regard. The question remains that if they had been given previous exposure to instructional communication theory, specifically related to clarity and immediacy, would there have been fewer challenges?

Thus, the results, which show that in reality there was limited development, can be regarded as positive. This implies that the possibility exists that if a module on classroom communication (that includes topics related to interpersonal and instructional communication) was to be implemented in the B Ed degree programme, the outcome probably would have been different.

My *second* overall conclusion stems from an additional attempt to converge the quantitative and qualitative results. As explained in the Section 5.2.2, I captured all the comments of the external evaluators related to clarity and immediacy on excel spreadsheets. The use of an excel spreadsheet made it possible to merge the quantitative results with the qualitative themes. I did this by adding the actual scores for the different measures (WTC, PRCA, SPCC and NIS-S) to both spreadsheets. Due the magnitude of the data set and my specific interest in the progression from the first to the final year, I decided to exclude the second and third year data sets and to work only with the first and fourth year sets. In other words, I prepared two final data sets: one combining the quantitative results with the qualitative comments related to clarity per student and another combining the quantitative results with the qualitative comments related to immediacy. The qualitative data sets were colour-coded (see Section 5.2.2) to reveal the relevant themes that emerged during the process of analysis.

The purpose of convergence at this stage was an attempt to link levels of WTC, CA, SPCC and NIS-S with the clarity and immediacy behaviours of these Foundation Phase student teachers. The use of the spreadsheet allowed me to sort the qualitative comments according to the scores for the different measures. This enabled me to see whether student teachers who were highly apprehensive about communication received related comments, and furthermore if these comments would be the opposite to those made of student teachers who were not apprehensive of communication. In other words, I essentially tried to determine whether student teachers who were rated as high CA, were more or less clear or immediate than those who were rated low CA student teachers.

I sorted both the first and the final year data sets for both clarity and immediacy according to all measures, but could not identify any linkages. Student teachers, who for example, were highly willing to communicate, received similar negative comments related to clarity themes as student teachers who scored average and low in their willingness to communicate. This was the case for all the measures, which makes this a very salient point and the relevance of this is therefore particularly noteworthy.

Despite the limitations of the study (see Section 6.6), and the fact that the qualitative sample was relatively small and the results therefore not generalizable, the fact that there are no links between these two sets of data does raise an important point: the self-perceived interpersonal communication profile of a student teacher is not an indication of the level of clarity or immediacy behaviours that she will engage in. Simply put, student teachers who are highly willing to communicate and who are not apprehensive about communication are not necessarily more clear and more immediate than student teachers who are not willing to communicate and who are, indeed, highly apprehensive about communication. This places a question mark over the age-old notion that one can be a natural born teacher. I would argue that, due to one's personal communication behaviour style, one may be rather described as a natural presenter and communicator. Moreover, this study shows that student teachers who are comfortable communicators are not necessarily more effective in the classroom, and that they do not display clearer and more immediate behaviours than do student teachers who are uncomfortable communicators. This points to the need for direct instruction in the form of a

dedicated module on instructional communication in order to develop teacher clarity and immediacy.

Finally, competence in teaching and learning, from a communication education perspective, requires teachers who are clear and immediate. It is an enduring myth that 'good' teachers, in other words who are clear and immediate, are naturally good at communication and have excellent presentation skills. The results from this longitudinal study on the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase student teachers challenge this and suggest that we, as teacher educators, should guard against such generalizations.

6.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The contributions of this study can be seen on two levels: a contribution to the theoretical knowledge base of instructional communication and a contribution to knowledge of teacher education processes and problems.

At the first level, the main contribution of this study is the concurrent investigation of two distinct fields within the discipline of communication education, namely interpersonal communication and instructional communication in the South African teacher education context. Quality teachers are required at all levels of education in South Africa. This is an extremely scarce resource given the present and future demands on the South African education system. As a result, concerns related to teacher quality, the resultant impact on the quality of teaching and learning and the urgent need to improve the quality of teacher graduates, are debated at various academic and institutional forums. The South African government also regards the development of quality teachers as a policy priority, which is evidenced by the recent introduction of the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ). This policy document addresses issues related to the quality of teacher education. Two of the issues identified by the MRTEQ (DHET 2011:53) relate directly to interpersonal and instructional communication and therefore to this specific study: firstly, "(n)ewly qualified teachers must know to communicate effectively in general, as well as in relation to their subject(s), in order to mediate learning", and secondly "newly qualified

teachers must know who their learners are". Even though the MRTEQ recognises the relevance of interpersonal and instructional communication, in other words classroom communication, for the preparation of competent teachers, these topics are seldom formally included in teacher preparation curricula

Another contribution stems from the qualitative analysis related to the clarity behaviours of FP student teachers. As explained in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.3) Chesebro (2002) described clarity as a rather vague high-inference variable. He suggested that the initial identification of two broad categories, namely verbal clarity and structural clarity, needed further clarification. He subsequently suggested low-inference variables, which would constitute these two categories of clarity, namely fluency and examples and explanations for verbal clarity and organisation and visual aids for structural clarity. Table 5.10 in Section 5.3.2 suggests that these can be influenced by various factors. These factors could possibly be seen as a further breakdown of the low-inference variables suggested by Chesebro (2002), specifically with regard to clarity in a Foundation Phase classroom.

At the second level, an important contribution is the placement of the investigation in the context of teacher education. The developmental communication elements have often focussed on the effect of CA, WTC and SPCC on learners in the classroom. Only a few studies (for example Bee Bee 2012; Yough 2011; May 2004; Drinkwater 1996) have specifically focussed on the communication behaviours of student teachers. However, their studies were mostly conducted from a language learning perspective. The lack of research on the communication behaviours of student teachers may be because it is assumed that student teachers who choose to enrol for a Bachelor's degree in education will do so with the knowledge that teaching requires constant interpersonal and instructional communication and interaction and that they will therefore be comfortable with communication. It may also be the case that language courses are assumed to deal with these issues, or that they see communication mainly in terms of language proficiency, which this study clearly shows is not the case.

Internationally, developmental interpersonal communication research is an extremely well researched area and over the last couple of decades, instructional communication research

seems to attract increasing attention. However, this is not the case in South Africa. This study not only adds a South African perspective to communication education research, but combines developmental and instructional communication research uniquely in a longitudinal mixed methods research design.

A major contribution is the recognition that classroom communication is excluded in teacher education programmes in general, but specifically in the B Ed Foundation Phase course at this specific university. Classroom communication was not included in the national B Ed curriculum and generally, it is assumed that student teachers gain these skills in classroom communication through regular exposure in situated learning experiences, i.e. during teacher practice sessions. The study challenges not only this assumption, but also the speculation by McCroskey *et al.* (2006:139) that certain personality profiles which are enacted personal communication styles, necessarily lead to clearer and more efficient teaching.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study showed that the perceptions of student teachers of their communication behaviours remained relatively stable over the four years. It is interesting to note that even though the self-perceptions of the student teachers regarding their communication competence (SPCC) improved from the first to the second year, this improvement did not translate to changes in their perceptions of communication apprehension, willingness to communicate or nonverbal immediacy. Furthermore, this study revealed that some changes occurred in the levels of clarity and immediacy displayed by student teachers, although changes were not as noticeable as expected and not all changes were positive. This is noteworthy, because it implies that the B Ed degree programme at this university, whilst producing graduates who are employable and who enter the profession relatively soon after they have graduated, has little impact on student teachers' perceptions of their communication abilities in general, as well as specifically on their instructional communication behaviours.

Over the years, the debate about the best model for optimal learning to teach has led to numerous models of what could be considered the ‘best’ in learning to teach (Rusznyuk

2008). All of these models, however, are situated within the discipline of education. The foundation of these models is that learning to teach can take on various forms and most often the notion of a situated learning experience, such as teaching practice, is signalled as the most appropriate. Many theorists and models suggest various ways in which this supposed process of learning to teach would evolve. Moreover, researchers often agree that the process is an ongoing one which exceeds the boundaries of a teacher education degree, such as the B Ed degree in question in this study. Some models propose various stages of development which should take a student teacher through the process of becoming a capable teacher, while others caution that the process of learning to teach, truthfully, extends a couple of years into the career of the novice teacher and can in fact span their entire career path (Rusznyak 2008). However, classroom communication can be taught and learnt. Student teachers can be taught what the implications of their personal communication behaviours are in relation to teaching and learning. Willingness to communicate, self-perceived communication competence and nonverbal immediacy can improve, given the correct intervention. Similarly, clarity and immediacy are important classroom communication behaviours that student teachers can learn. The B Ed degree programme did not address these issues and as a result, the changes observed were limited.

This study investigated the development of the classroom communication behaviours of FP student teachers, specifically related to teaching practice as a situated learning experience. Learning, according to Lave and Wenger (1991:31) "is an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice" and I want to argue that this holds also in the process of learning to teach. The teaching practice model used at this university is embedded in a specific situated experience, namely the classroom, which is by nature a social space. In other words, the teaching practice model requires that student teachers initially experience the situated activity as peripheral participators, but ultimately, by becoming actively involved in the learning process, they should progress to more legitimate participation. However, peripheral participation can only evolve to authentic learning opportunities through detailed discussions, i.e. interpersonal communication, between mentor teacher and student teacher. These discussions ought to be related to the practice of the mentor teacher, the different levels of learning of the learners and also to the practice of the student teacher. It is important to reiterate that the Foundation Phase student teachers who took part in this study were not exposed to any interpersonal or instructional communication theory. In other words, they

were placed in the schools without any theoretical background knowledge related to their communication behaviours and the possible impact it could have on their learning to become a teacher. From the results discussed in Chapter 4, it is clear that the majority of the student teachers in this group are, in general, uncomfortable with interpersonal communication. The assumption can be made that they therefore possibly avoided discussions with the mentor teacher would could have had a positive impact on their learning to teach.

The situated experience of teaching practice is often described as the most appropriate way in which student teachers can 'learn to teach'. It is important to mention at this stage that it is also my belief, as researcher and teacher educator, that the situated learning experience has great potential to positively contribute to teacher education in general. However, I believe that the educational training programmes previously neglected to acknowledge the presence of the various parties involved in this process, in other words teacher education curricula previously seemed to overlook the interpersonal relationships and the role of instructional communication in this situated experience. Furthermore, the manner in which the communication between the student teacher and mentor teacher can affect the development of the process of learning to teach was not formally addressed. Previous teacher education programmes at this specific university also did not explicitly address the instructional language that student teachers require in order to execute their lessons. The notion of linking content knowledge to pedagogical content knowledge is often mentioned, however the communication link between the two is seldom acknowledged. This study makes it clear that communication in education serves three purposes: from a clarity perspective it enables the delivery of clear and understandable lessons; from an immediacy perspective it highlights the importance of teacher immediacy in a classroom; and most importantly, it serves to stimulate thinking about the situated learning experience. This study raises issues, not only related to the relationship between student teacher and mentor teacher, but also regarding the place of classroom communication in teaching in general.

This study also questions the effectiveness of the model of teaching practice as situated learning experience. As researcher/lecturer I realise that this is particularly negative and problematic, because the model as implemented in this B Ed degree programme does support the development of teaching skills and annually contributes to the development of many

novice teachers who enter the field successfully. Therefore, it is important to recognise that the study, in fact, questions the effectiveness of placing student teachers in the situated learning experience without equipping them with knowledge or an understanding of the importance or interpersonal or instructional communication in the classroom.

The findings also highlight implications related to the teaching profession, specifically on an interpersonal level. The student teachers who participated in this study repeatedly indicated that they were not comfortable about interpersonal communication in general, but also in the context of group discussions and meetings[57]. However, these two contexts are very relevant in the teaching profession: very often more than one teacher is responsible for a grade, which implies that the planning must be done together, hence in groups. Additionally, the Department of Education stipulates that schools must join in so-called clusters to do the planning and moderation – this also implies that teachers have to be comfortable with communication in groups. Furthermore, teachers have to meet with parents regularly. Most of the time, these 'meetings' would be informal discussions after the school day, however, teachers are also required to set up formal meetings with parents to discuss the learners' progress. The results of this study show that student teachers are seldom comfortable in these contexts, and this will influence the effectiveness of these interactions.

Hence, I want to make the following recommendations:

- Classroom communication should be included in teacher preparation programmes.
- Mentor teachers should be made aware of the importance of the interpersonal communication between them and the student teachers and how their relationship can influence the development of the student teacher. This can be done during the information sessions that mentor teachers are encouraged to attend prior to the start of the first teaching practice session.
- Short courses on classroom communication should be developed and offered to in-service teachers
- Interpersonal communication should be included in the Subject Life skills in the Further Education and Training band (Grade 10 to 12). The willingness to

[57] Although group discussions and meeting were excluded from previous discussion, is should be mentioned at this stage because of the change in context. (See addendum 4.1)

communicate, nonverbal immediacy and self-perceived communication competence of individuals can only develop effectively if they have knowledge of the process and how their behaviour affects the process. This is a crucial life skill which is omitted from the current curriculum.

6.6 IMPLICATIONS OF THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of a study, in order to ascertain the real value of such a study in the end.

Data collection proved to be an obstacle. I collected data from two groups of student teachers. I am a core lecturer for the Foundation Phase group and had little difficulty in collecting data from this group. However, because I had limited access to the student teachers in the Intermediate & Senior Phase, few of these student teachers completed and submitted the self-report surveys. The initial reason for including the Intermediate and Senior Phase student teachers was the diversity in the group. The Foundation Phase group were all female student teachers, whereas the Intermediate and Senior Phase group consisted of male and female student teachers. As I explained in Section 3.7, I decided to exclude the data collected on the ISP student teachers as part of the data reduction strategy. Although this is described here as a limitation, it afforded me the opportunity to narrow the focus on the Foundation Phase student teachers only.

As mentioned previously, a longitudinal design seemed most appropriate in order to investigate classroom communication of student teachers as part of the process of learning to teach. Despite the numerous advantages of a longitudinal approach, there are limitations that cannot be ignored. Attrition is one of the most common obstacles a researcher has to face in this regard. Attrition, in this study, was evident on two levels: firstly, there were nonresponses related to the quantitative survey design phase, because some student teachers did not complete all the surveys annually which, as discussed in Chapter 3, resulted in variations in the number of participants over the four years. Secondly, attrition related to the qualitative phase was the result of student teachers who either deregistered from the course completely, or who failed subjects, which prevented them from doing teaching practice the next, and as a result they had to be excluded from the study. From the original 19 student

teachers who agreed to be part of the qualitative sample, four either failed or deregistered, which meant that 80% (15 participants) of the original sample remained in the study. In the original sample, there was a relatively equal spread of the number of participants related to high, average or low WTC in that five student teachers scored high WTC, six scored average WTC and seven of the group scored low WTC. I deliberately included more student teachers in the low WTC group, because I expected the attrition to come from that group. This turned out to be incorrect as the group eventually consisted of three student teachers who perceived themselves to have high levels of WTC, six who were average WTC and six who were low WTC.

Another limitation, which could in fact also have a positive impact, is the fact that the external evaluators did not use standardised evaluation forms. As explained in Section 3.6.2, external evaluators are encouraged to comment on the following aspects: the planning and execution of the lesson, the teaching style of the student teacher, behaviour management and any other aspects that are considered relevant. However, depending on what actually happens during the lesson, the evaluator may choose to rather focus on one or two specific aspects that need specific attention. This implies that not all external evaluators commented on exactly the same aspects. However, at the same time this 'limitation' could have contributed to minimizing the extent of the bias, because if evaluators were asked to comment on specific aspects related to clarity and immediacy, it may have tainted the authenticity of the evaluation reports. This is quite important, bearing in mind that the evaluation reports are the only real evidence of what transpired during the lessons that were evaluated.

My involvement as researcher/external evaluator should also be recognised as a possible limitation. However, because the concepts of teacher clarity and teacher immediacy were not part of their curriculum, it is not possible that student teachers could have "shown me what I wanted to see", and because I did not conduct interviews they could also not have told me "what I wanted to hear". Student teachers were also aware of the fact that they could withdraw from the study at any given time. Therefore, I do not believe that my presence as researcher impacted on the performance of the student teachers during the evaluation sessions, which could have been a limitation to the findings and general conclusion.

Furthermore, as mentioned in Chapter 1, I consider the evaluation reports to be the most objective proof of what transpired during the evaluation sessions. I had to ensure that in my own writing of the reports, I remained as unbiased as possible. Therefore, in an attempt to remove further bias, I chose to deviate from the more standard practice in qualitative research of collecting and analysing the data almost immediately. I left the analysis of the data until the end of the study in order not to influence my evaluations of the lessons of student teachers from year to year. I also withheld the analysis of the quantitative data for the same reasons so that I could not be influenced by the quantitative results when writing my evaluation reports.

6.7 POSSIBILITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Classroom communication and the factors that influence classroom communication, are, as mentioned throughout this dissertation, not new in international research. However, relatively little research in South Africa has contributed to knowledge on classroom communication. This study focuses primarily on the development of the classroom communication behaviours of Foundation Phase teachers and it has to be acknowledged that there are many other factors that can influence classroom communication at higher levels of education. For example, generally Foundation Phase teachers in South Africa, and specifically the student teachers in this study, teach in their first language (L1), because government recommendations are that from Grade R to 3 the LoLT should be the first language of the learners. Therefore, the assumption is that the student teachers who participated in this study have an adequate grasp of the language in which they are teaching. This may not be the case in the higher grades and therefore future research on teacher clarity and teacher immediacy should consider how teaching in a language other than one's first language could potentially influence levels of clarity and immediacy.

Furthermore, as mentioned previously, the focus of this study was specifically on the communication behaviours of FP student teachers and related to clarity and immediacy in the classroom. However, both clarity and immediacy in the classroom are influenced by the communication behaviours of the learners as well. This is another area which ought to be investigated, specifically in relation to the South African situation where learners often are placed in situations where the LoLT is not their first language. Research on clarity, for

example, has shown that learners share the responsibility of clarification through the asking of questions or by signalling when they do not understand. In the South African context, this raises interesting issues related to the learners' competency in their second language to be able to ask questions that could enhance clarity.

Additionally, this study highlights the need for further investigation into factors relating to interpersonal communication that may affect the process of learning to teach in teaching practice as a situated learning experience. The current model of teaching practice at the university requires interpersonal interaction between student teacher and mentor teacher. As is evident from this study, the level of WTC of student teachers, for example, may influence the development of interaction and subsequently the development of their relationship with mentor teachers, and ultimately, the development of the student teacher as teacher.

6.8 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS AND FINAL THOUGHTS

I started the conceptualisation of this study from a negative stance. I was initially employed as the drama lecturer responsible for Drama-in-Education in the Foundation Phase and Drama as a major subject in the Intermediate and Senior Phase programmes. There seemed to be a generalised collective belief in teacher education contexts that drama is the answer to many teaching-related problems, .e.g. that "teaching is acting" and that all teachers should, in fact, be actors. Lecturers often questioned instances where student teachers managed to achieve a pass mark (50%) for drama-in-education, but were not able to pass the teaching practice component of the course. As a novice drama lecturer, this initially puzzled me, but I soon realised that in these cases student teachers often passed the academic modules of the subject, but failed the practical module. I was pleased with this insight, because the subject Drama-in-Education was not intended to train actors. The purpose was to prepare student teachers to use drama as an integrated methodology in the Foundation Phase.

However, the notion that exposure to drama was supposed to enhance general teaching skills continued to bother me. I became increasingly aware of the basic belief that, in a stereotypical description, teachers should be extroverts who can act and be entertaining, and

that this would result in creative and inspiring lessons. Moreover, colleagues seemed to believe that exposure to drama activities would change introverts into extroverts and change student teachers who lack self-confidence into confident teachers.

As I conceptualised the study, the impressions that I continued to get from colleagues and mentor teachers started to bother me. There seemed to be the assumption that introverts would not make good teachers, neither would people who lack self-confidence. The underlying implication was that to produce competent graduates the four-year B Ed degree programme should turn introverted student teachers into extroverts and that all student teachers had to exit the programme as confident communicators. I must admit, at the time none of this sounded entirely incorrect: I was however not convinced that the subject Drama-in-Education was the ultimate remedy to enhance general teaching skills.

Conducting this study changed my understanding of the process of learning to teach because it allowed me to investigate the problem from a different vantage point. References to what constitutes a natural teacher bothered me. I now want to suggest that such references should rather refer to good presenters and that good and natural presenters are not necessarily good teachers. Teaching, in my opinion, is not purely an art. It has a strong theoretical foundation, which suggests that from a communication education perspective teaching has a scientific component, which requires in-depth study. However, the exclusion of classroom communication from the teacher education curriculum created a void, which means that natural presenters (read ‘dramatic performers’) are evaluated as better teachers, because they have the gift of the gab, in other words they have the ability to speak comfortably and with confidence and are often persuasive as a result.

This study shows that student teachers who are confident about their communication abilities are not necessarily clearer and more immediate teachers. There was no evidence to suggest that student teachers who were verbally more confident displayed higher levels of clarity or immediacy. Furthermore, student teachers who were less confident about their communication skills and who would generally be described as introverted and shy were not less clear during their lessons than their more extroverted counterparts.

In conclusion, this study highlights the fact that classroom communication should be included in the teacher education curriculum, because it adds another important focus to teacher education, as explained in Chapter 1 and also Section 6.1: content and pedagogy represents the two legs of the stool, and effective classroom communication brings the balance by adding the third leg.

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ADDENDUM 3.1: COMMUNICATION MEASURES

Nonverbal immediacy scale: self-report (NIS-S)[58]

This is the most up-to-date measure of nonverbal immediacy as a self-report. Alpha reliability estimates around .90 should be expected. This measure has more face validity than previous instruments because it has more and more diverse items. Its predictive validity also is excellent. When using this instrument it is important to recognize that the difference in these self-reports between females and males is statistically significant and socially significant (that is, substantial variance in the scores on this instrument can be attributed to biological sex). Whether these differences are "real" (that is, females may actually be more nonverbally immediate than males) or a function of social desirability (that is, females think they should be more immediate than males think they should be) or a function of actual behavior has not yet been determined (as of September, 2003).

DIRECTIONS: The following statements describe the ways some people behave while talking with or to others. Please indicate in the space at the left of each item the degree to which you believe the statement applies TO YOU. Please use the following 5-point scale: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Occasionally; 4 = Often; 5 = Very Often

_____ 1. I use my hands and arms to gesture while talking to people.
_____ 2. I touch others on the shoulder or arm while talking to them.
_____ 3. I use a monotone or dull voice while talking to people.
_____ 4. I look over or away from others while talking to them.
_____ 5. I move away from others when they touch me while we are talking.
_____ 6. I have a relaxed body position when I talk to people.
_____ 7. I frown while talking to people.
_____ 8. I avoid eye contact while talking to people.
_____ 9. I have a tense body position while talking to people.
_____10. I sit close or stand close to people while talking with them.
_____11. My voice is monotonous or dull when I talk to people.
_____12. I use a variety of vocal expressions when I talk to people.
_____13. I gesture when I talk to people.
_____14. I am animated when I talk to people.
_____15. I have a bland facial expression when I talk to people.
_____16. I move closer to people when I talk to them.
_____17. I look directly at people while talking to them.
_____18. I am stiff when I talk to people.
_____19. I have a lot of vocal variety when I talk to people.
_____20. I avoid gesturing while I am talking to people.
_____21. I lean toward people when I talk to them.
_____22. I maintain eye contact with people when I talk to them.
_____23. I try not to sit or stand close to people when I talk with them.
_____24. I lean away from people when I talk to them.
_____25. I smile when I talk to people.
_____26. I avoid touching people when I talk to them.

[58] Source: Richmond, V. P., McCroskey, J. C., & Johnson, A. D. 2003. Development of the Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS): Measures of self- and other-perceived nonverbal immediacy. *Communication Quarterly*, 51, 502-515.

Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)[59]

The PRCA-24 is the instrument which is most widely used to measure communication apprehension. It is preferable above all earlier versions of the instrument (PRCA, PRCA10, PRCA-24B, etc.). It is highly reliable (alpha regularly >.90) and has very high predictive validity. It permits one to obtain sub-scores on the contexts of public speaking, dyadic interaction, small groups, and large groups. However, these scores are substantially less reliable than the total PRCA-24 scores-because of the reduced number of items. People interested only in public speaking anxiety should consider using the PRPSA rather than the public speaking sub-score drawn from the PRCA-24. It is much more reliable for this purpose. This instrument is composed of twenty-four statements concerning feelings about communicating with others. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; are Neutral = 3; Agree = 4; Strongly Agree = 5

_____1. I dislike participating in group discussions.
_____2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.
_____3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.
_____4. I like to get involved in group discussions.
_____5. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.
_____6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions.
_____7. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.
_____8. Usually, I am comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.
_____9. I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.
_____10. I am afraid to express myself at meetings.
_____11. Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.
_____12. I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting.
_____13. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.
_____14. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.
_____15. Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.
_____16. Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.
_____17. While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.
_____18. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.
_____19. I have no fear of giving a speech.
_____20. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
_____21. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
_____22. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
_____23. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
_____24. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.

[59] Source: McCroskey, J. C. 1982. *An introduction to rhetorical communication* (4th Ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. (Also available in more recent editions of this book, now published by Allyn & Bacon.)

Willingness to communication scale (WTC)[60]

Willingness to communicate is the most basic orientation toward communication. Almost anyone is likely to respond to a direct question, but many will not continue or initiate interaction. This instrument measures a person's willingness to initiate communication. The face validity of the instrument is strong, and results of extensive research indicate the predictive validity of the instrument. Alpha reliability estimates for this instrument have ranged from .85 to well above .90. Of the 20 items on the instrument, 8 are used to distract attention from the scored items. The twelve remain items generate a total score, 4 context-type scores, and 3 receiver-type scores. The sub-scores generate lower reliability estimates, but generally high enough to be used in research studies. Directions: Below are 20 situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Indicate the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate in the space at the left of the item what percent of the time you would choose to communicate. (0 = Never to 100 = Always)

_____1. Talk with a service station attendant.

_____2. Talk with a physician.

_____3. Present a talk to a group of strangers.

_____4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.

_____5. Talk with a salesperson in a store.

_____6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.

_____7. Talk with a police officer.

_____8. Talk in a small group of strangers.

_____9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.

_____10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.

_____11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.

_____12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.

_____13. Talk with a secretary.

_____14. Present a talk to a group of friends.

_____15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.

_____16. Talk with a garbage collector.

_____17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.

_____18. Talk with a spouse (or girl/boyfriend).

_____19. Talk in a small group of friends.

_____20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances

[60] Sources: McCroskey, J. C. 1992. Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly*, 40, 16-25.

McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. 1987. Willingness to communicate. In J. C. McCroskey & J. A. Daly (Eds.), *Personality and interpersonal communication* (pp. 119-131). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Self-perceived communication competence scale (SPCC)[61]

The self-perceived communication competence scale was developed to obtain information concerning how competent people feel they are in a variety of communication contexts and with a variety of types of receivers. Early self-report measures of competence were structured to represent what the creators of the measures felt were the components of communication competence. This scale is intended to let the respondent define communication competence. Since people make decisions with regard to communication (for example, whether they will even do it), it is their perception that is important, not that of an outside observer. It is important that users of this measure recognize that this is NOT a measure of actual communication competence, it is a measure of PERCEIVED competence. While these two different types of measures may be substantially correlated, they are not the same thing. This measure has generated good alpha reliability estimates (above .85) and had strong face validity. It also has been found to have substantial predictive validity.

Directions: Below are twelve situations in which you might need to communicate. People's abilities to communicate effectively vary a lot, and sometimes the same person is more competent to communicate in one situation than in another. Please indicate how competent you believe you are to communicate in each of the situations described below. Indicate in the space provided at the left of each item your estimate of your competence.

Presume 0 = completely incompetent and 100 = competent.

_____1. Present a talk to a group of strangers.

_____2. Talk with an acquaintance.

_____3. Talk in a large meeting of friends.

_____4. Talk in a small group of strangers.

_____5. Talk with a friend.

_____6. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.

_____7. Talk with a stranger.

_____8. Present a talk to a group of friends.

_____9. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.

_____10. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.

_____11. Talk in a small group of friends.

_____12. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

[61] Source: McCroskey, J. C., & McCroskey, L. L. 1988. Self-report as an approach to measuring communication competence. *Communication Research Reports*, 5, 108-113.

ADDENDUM 3.2: EVALUATION REPORT

Student [redacted] FP 4 Date 8 Aug 2012
Evaluator [redacted] Mark 55 %

School [redacted] Grade 3 Language E
Learners 30

Thank you for having me on the last day!

Your portfolio is neat, yet certain aspects are lacking. I also miss sess ①. Tutor feedback?

Your lesson plan (daily) does not indicate the time spent on each lesson. If you change the format of the form, make sure to include the necessary information.

I feel that you could have put much more effort into your lesson - creative writing. You want them to write about a fantasy day, yet you make no attempt to stimulate creative thinking. That is why so many learners wanted to ask questions. You must attempt to set the tone & get learners into the appropriate frame of mind. No resources to lead learners? You have to make use of visually appealing support materials. Think outside the box - you could have made this 'magic' for them.

You have included very good resources in your

file. Well done.

Good for walking between tables between taking reading groups on the mat. You were aware of learners at tables while on the mat. Try to not only emphasize incorrect behaviour - reward & praise good behaviour aswell.

I am a little disappointed in what I saw today. You had "carteblanche", yet you put in the minimum input. It is not for me that you have to "window dress". You have to stimulate learners, as we have to compete with a very visual world. Lessons must be appealling & challenging.

If you stand in a classroom next year, you will have to put in much more effort. You have to 'teach' and not merely 'tell'. Keep in mind that you must make teaching purposeful and enjoyable. We have a huge responsibility on our shoulders & we MUST give only our best to every single learner. You are laying the foundation for their future learning! It has to be taken seriously !!! You impact young minds.

Thank you & please try hard.

ADDENDUM 3.3

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Learning to teach: Communication skills in Teacher Education

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Christélle Ekron (B. Mus (ed), B Drama, M Drama), a student at the Faculty of Education (Stellenbosch University).

You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a first year B Ed (GET) student at the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The problem in this study is captured in the research question: How do current approaches to teacher education at CPUT influence or change communication behaviour of student teachers?

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

You will be required to complete four questionnaires during the first semester of each year of your studies.
The researcher will also analyze the various ecternal evaluators' reports.
The researcher will further observe a sample of the students.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No risk or physical discomfort is anticipated in this study.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Your involvement in this study will help you to reflect on your communication strategies and how to improve them to the learners' advantage.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

You will not receive payment (monetary or otherwise) for participating in this research.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained. The raw data will only be viewed by the researcher. All questionnaires, evaluations and transcripts of interviews will be kept in a secure place for the duration of the study. Upon publication of the findings, students will remain anonymous.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you volunteer to be involved in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Christelle Ekron on 021 6801522 or email at ekronc@cput.ac.za .

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Maryke Hunter-Hüsselmann (mh3@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4623) at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to _____by Christélle Ekron in [*Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other]* and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated for me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

_____hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____

Name of Subject/Participant

_____

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

_____ _____

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative **Date**

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [*name of the subject/participant]* and/or [his/her] representative _____ [*name of the representative]. [H*e/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in [*Afrikaans/*English/*Xhosa/*Other*] and [*no translator was used/this conversation was translated into* _____ by _____].

_____ _____

Signature of Investigator **Date**

ADDENDUM 3.4

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	**Dr Cina Mosito**

At a meeting of the Faculty Research Committee (Includes Ethics Review Committee) on 5 May 2009 __ ethics approval was granted to__*Cossiele Ekron*_for research activities related to the PhD study.

Title of dissertation/thesis:	*Learning to teach: communication skills in teacher education*

Conditions:

1. Permission for school-based research must be obtained from the WCED. Evidence must be submitted to the Administrator, Postgraduate Programmes.
2. Confidentiality
3. Anonymity
4. _____

Research activities are restricted to those detailed in the research proposal.

Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	**Date:** 18/06/09
Signed: Chairperson: Faculty Research Committee	**Date:** 23/6/09

ADDEDNDUM 3.5: ETHICAL CLEARANCE (SU)

UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

Approved with Stipulations
New Application

20-Feb-2012
EKRON, Christ?lle

Protocol #: HS615/2011
Title: Learning to Teach: Communication skills in Teacher Education

Dear Mrs Christ?lle EKRON,

The **New Application** received on **27-Jul-2011**, was reviewed by Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities) via Committee Review procedures on **28-Jul-2011**.

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Protocol Approval Period: **27-Jul-2011 -26-Jul-2012**

Present Committee Members:
Fouche, Magdalena MG
Van Wyk, Berte B
De Villiers, Mare MRH
Hattingh, Johannes JP
Theron, Carl CC
Somhlaba, Ncebazakhe NZ
Viviers, Suzette S
Bitzer, Elias EM
Engelbrecht, Sidney SF
Van Zyl, Gerhard Mkhonto
Van der Walt, Nicolene N

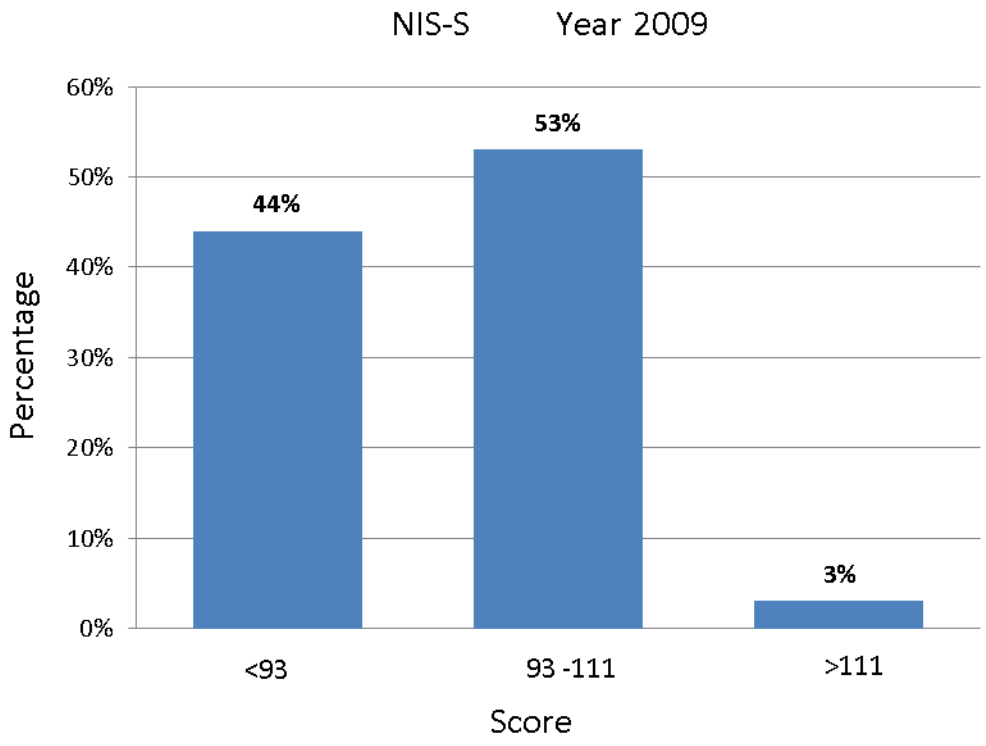
The Stipulations of your ethics approval are as follows:
1. The researcher is requested to clarify whether the fieldwork has already been conducted i.e. whether this application for ethics clearance is a post hoc application. Please clarify the dates on the application form (13 July 2010, 13 July and 13 July 2011?) as well as the CPUT letter of permission (2009).
2. The researcher is requested to indicate how the possibility of subtle coercion will be addressed in the study given that the participants are subordinate to her.
3. How long will the data be stored before it will be destroyed?
4. When will the empirical research commence?
5. The researcher is requested to indicate whether the following assessment scales available in the public domain: Non-verbal immediacy scale - observer report (NIS-O), Non-verbal immediacy scale - self report (NIS-S), Personal report of communication apprehension (PRCA-24) and Willingness to communicate (WTC).
6. The researcher needs to be aware that ethics clearance is only granted for 12 months from the date of approval. As such she needs to apply again in a year's time.
7. The researcher is requested to provide a letter of permission from the Western Cape Education Department prior to commencing with the research.

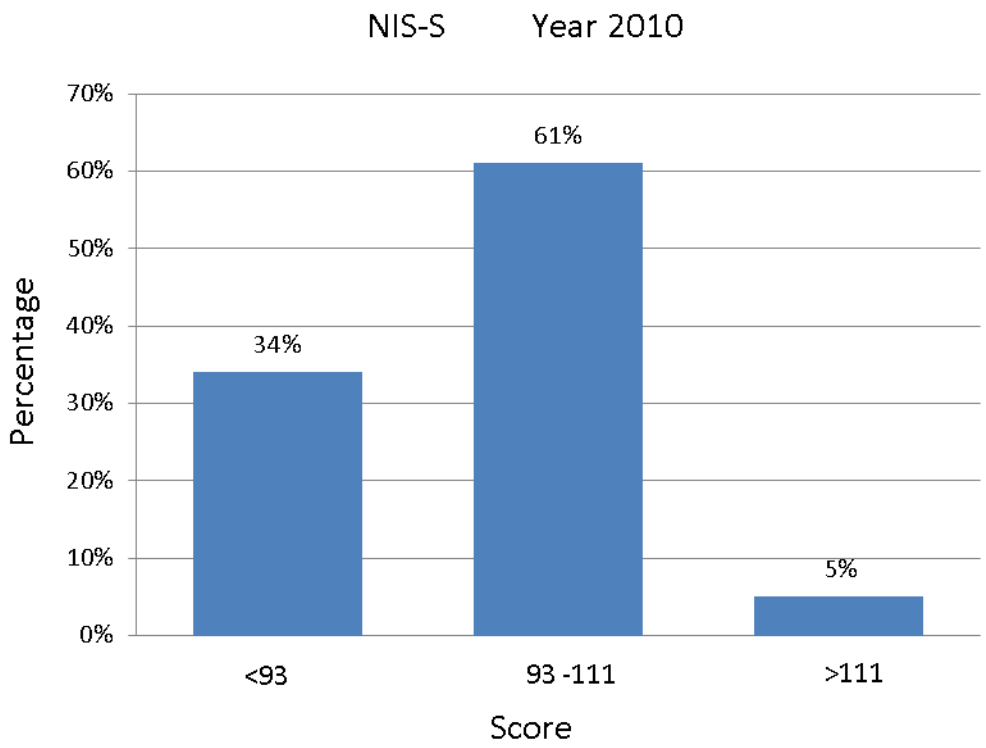
Standard provisions
1. The researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.
2. The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
3. The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
4. The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.

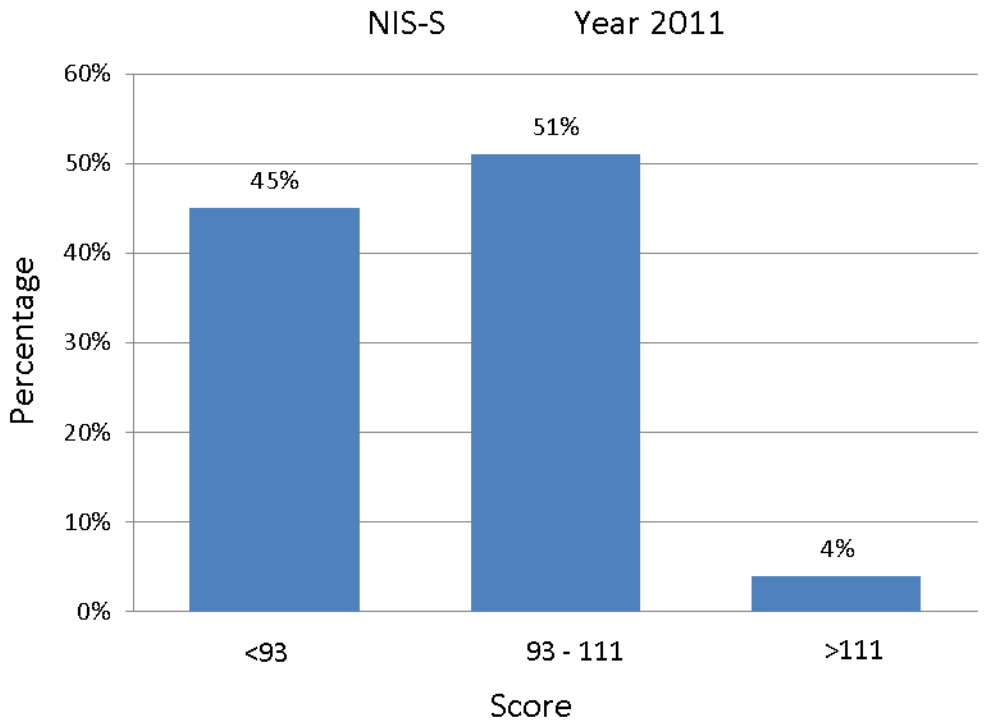
ADDENDUM 4.1:

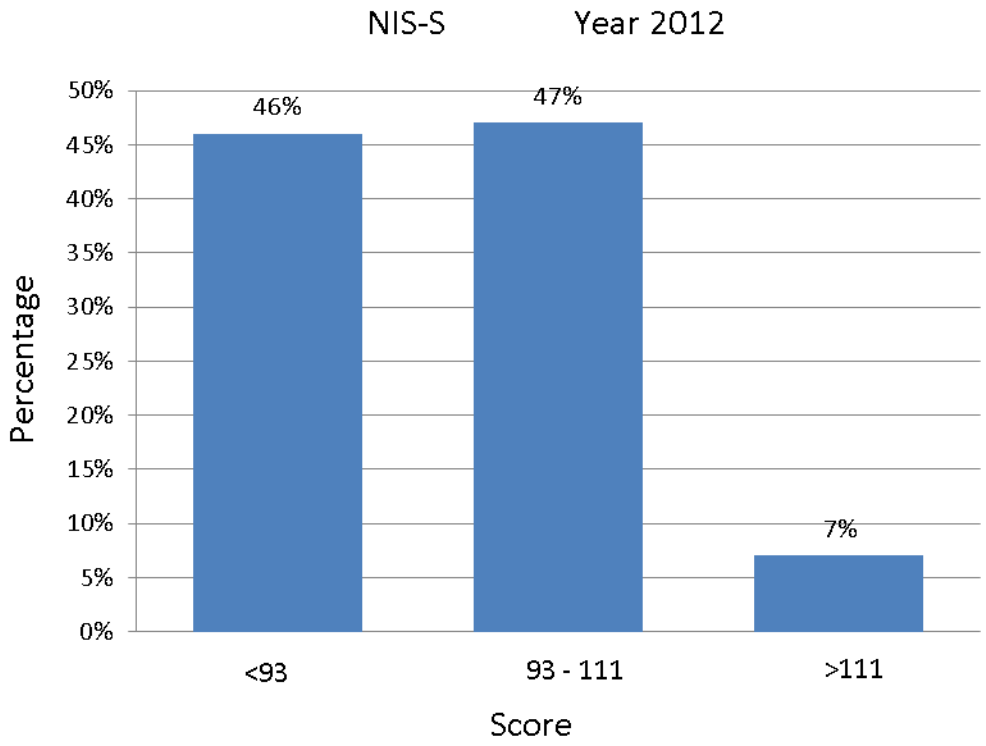
QUANTITIVE DATA: VISUAL REPRESENTATION

4.1.1 NONVERBAL IMMEDIACY –SELF REPORT

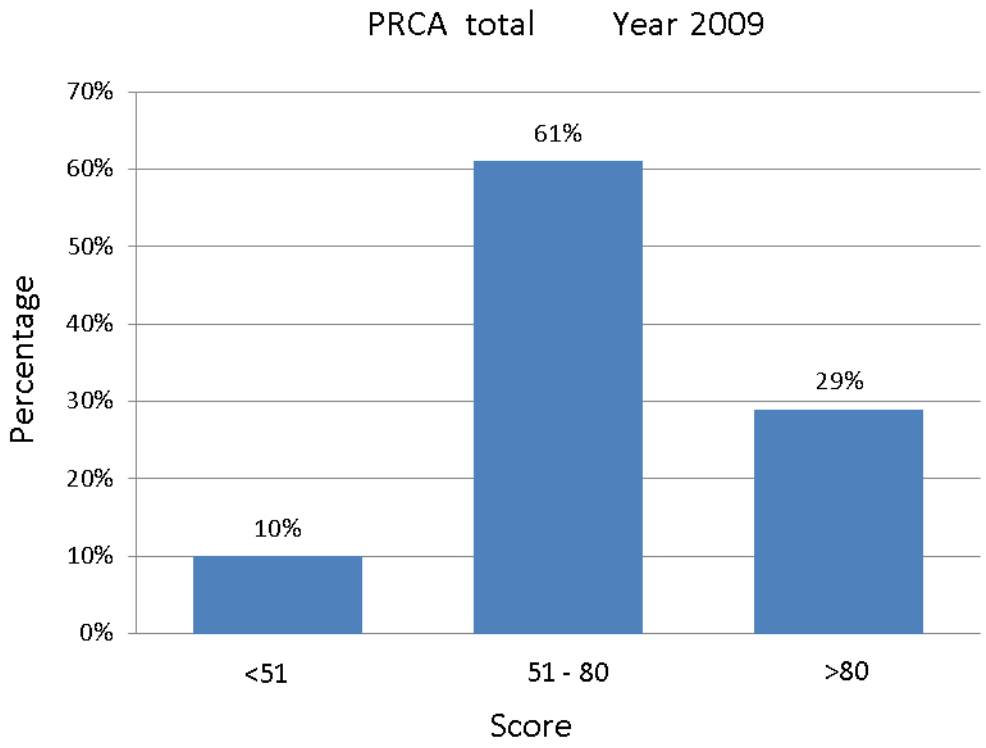


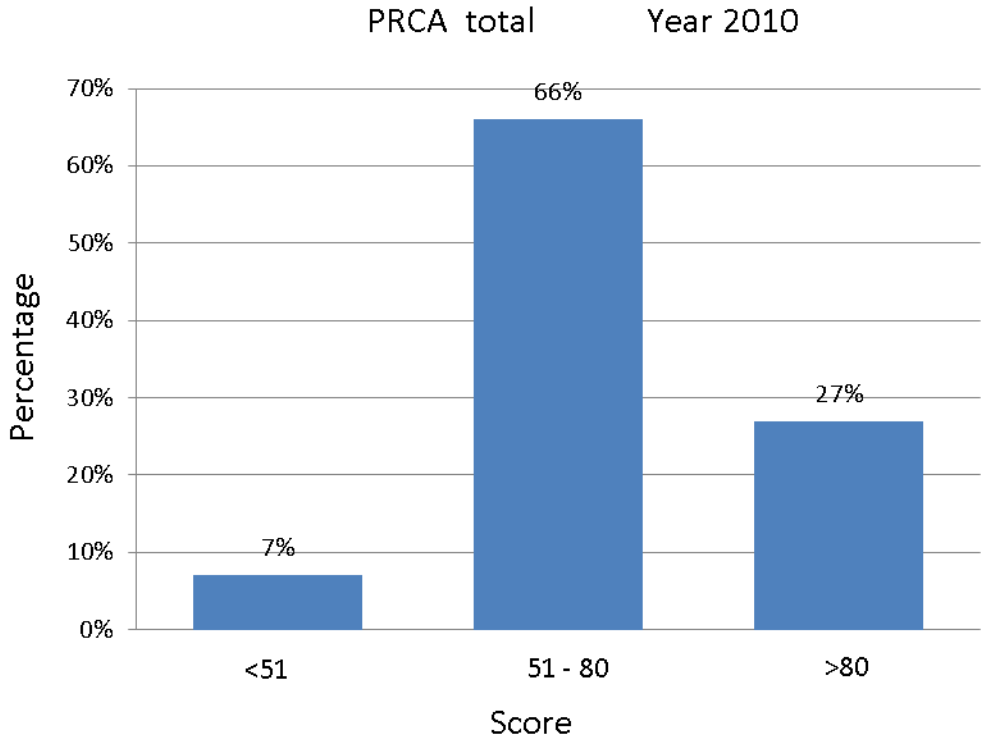


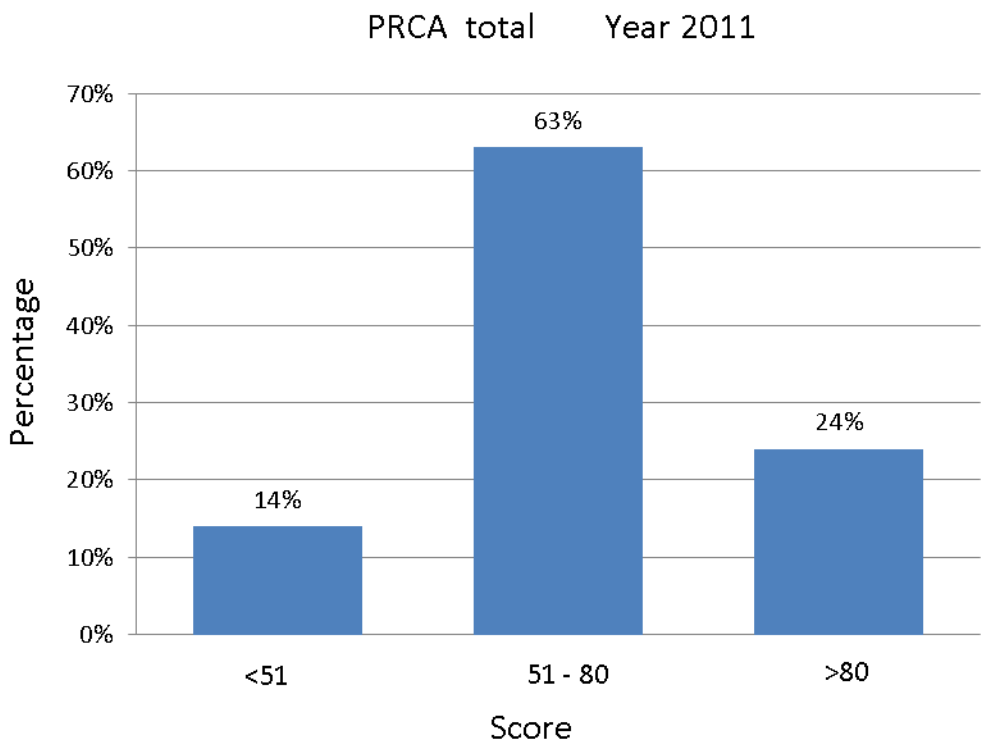


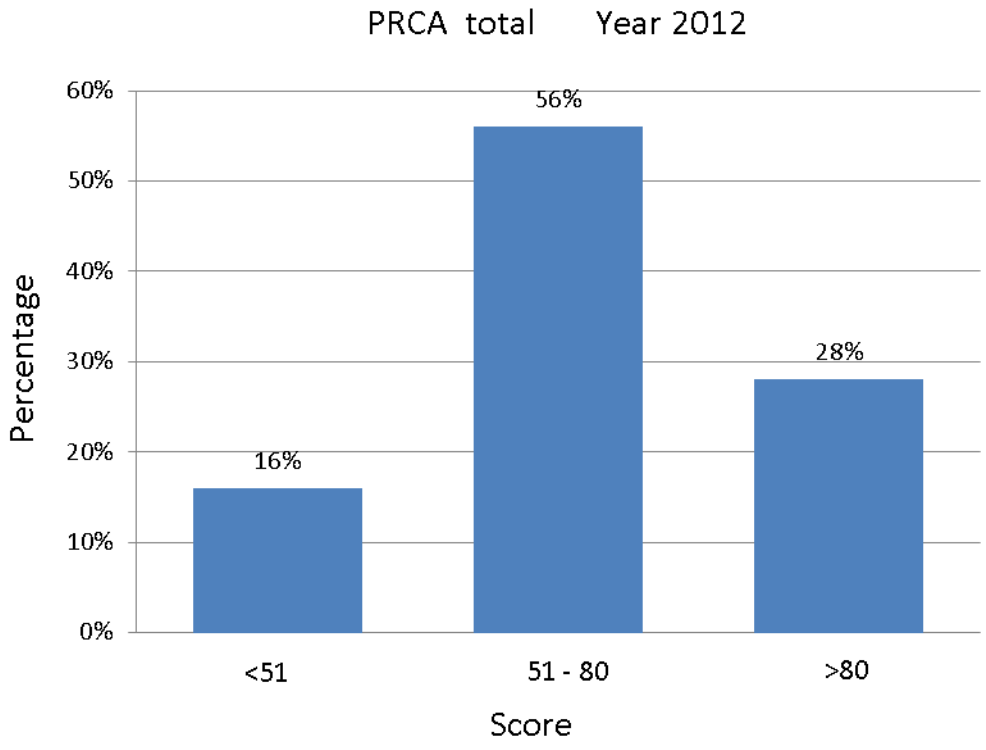


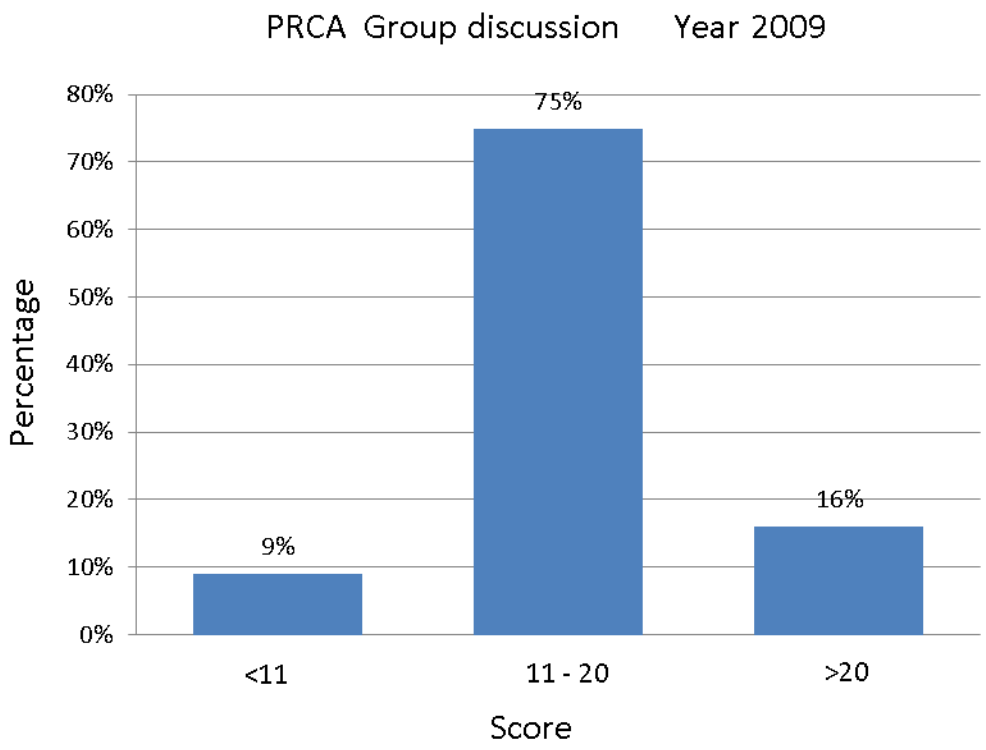
4.1.2 PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

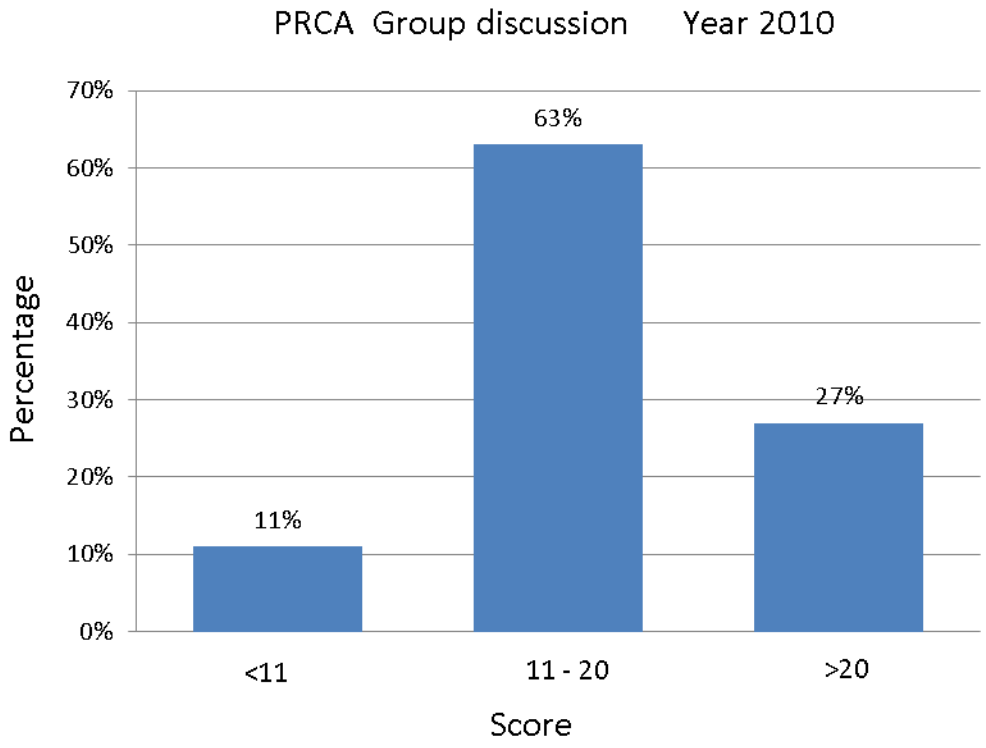


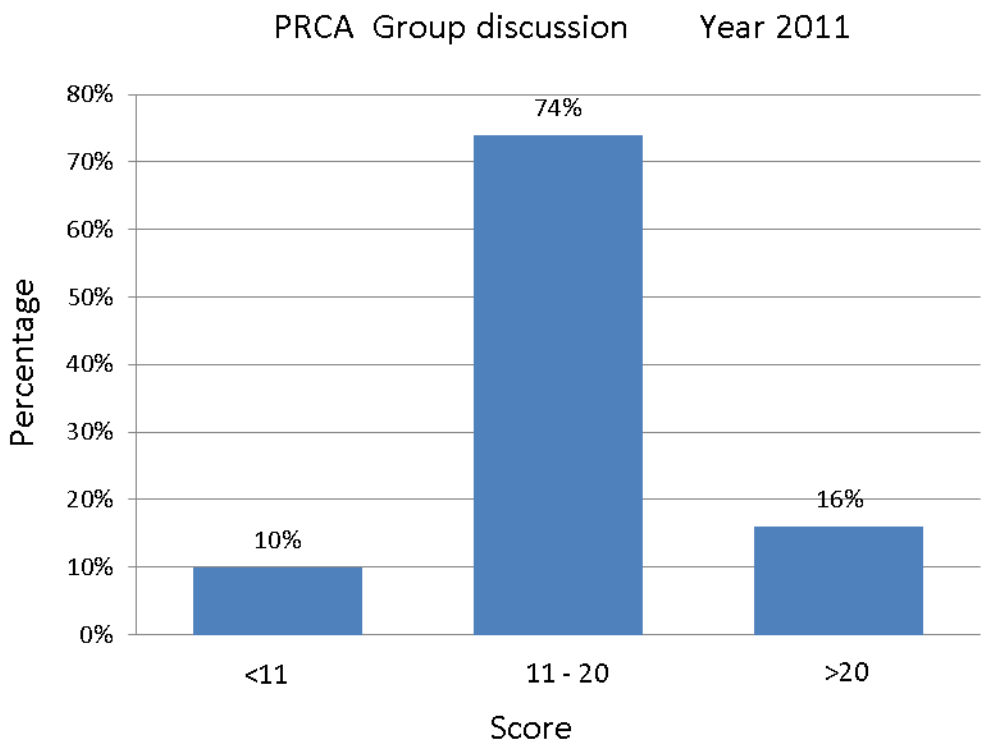


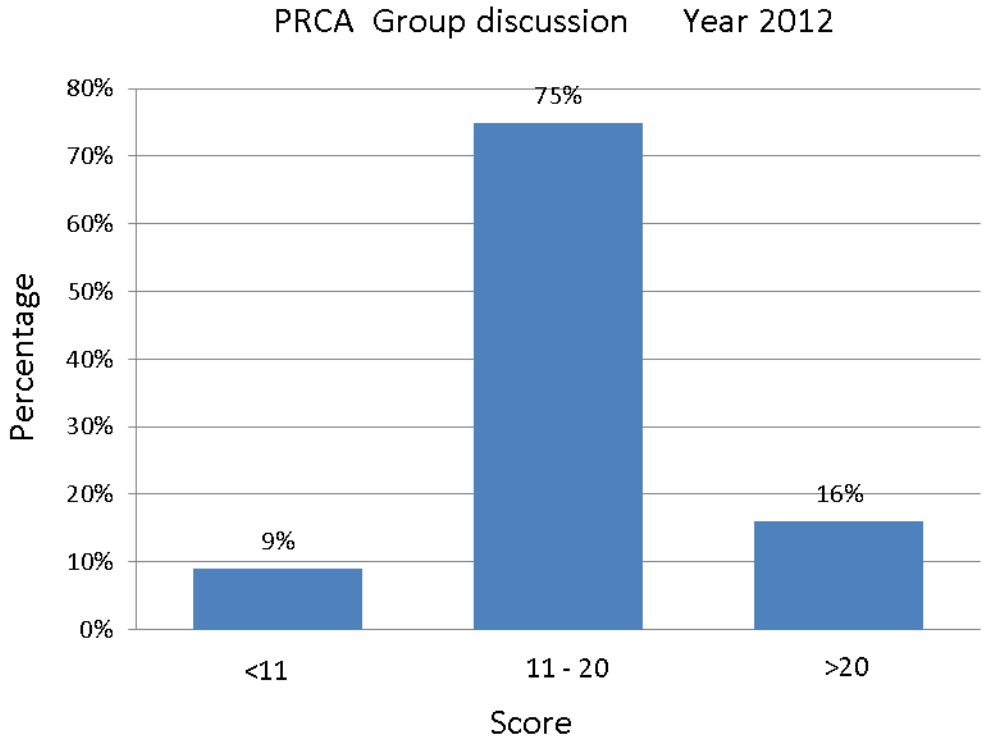


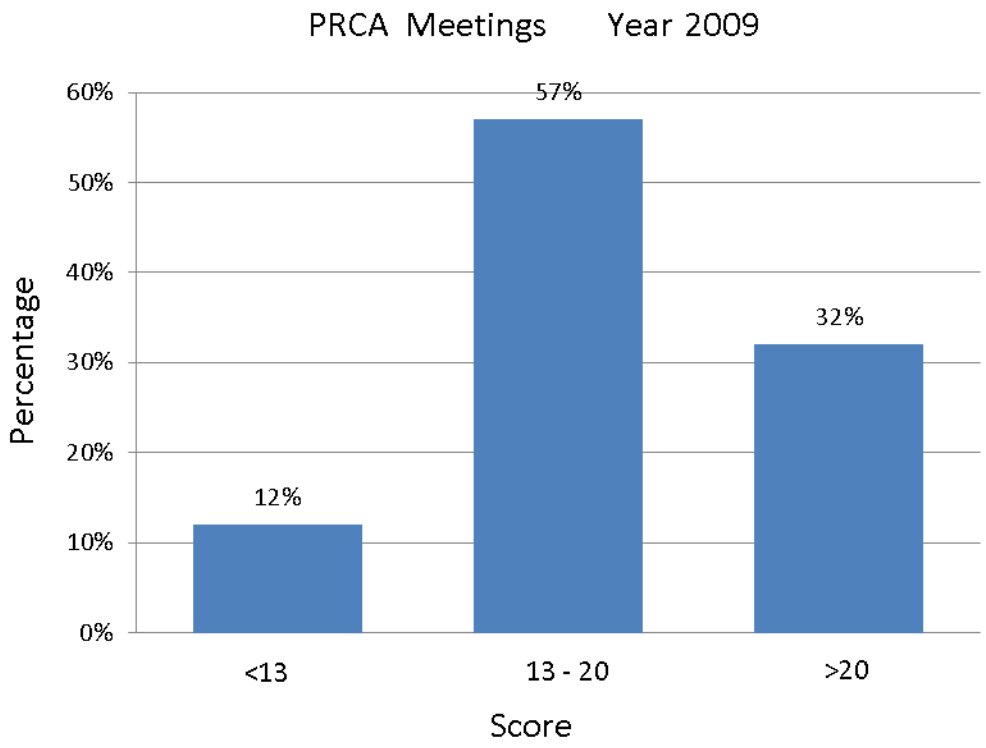


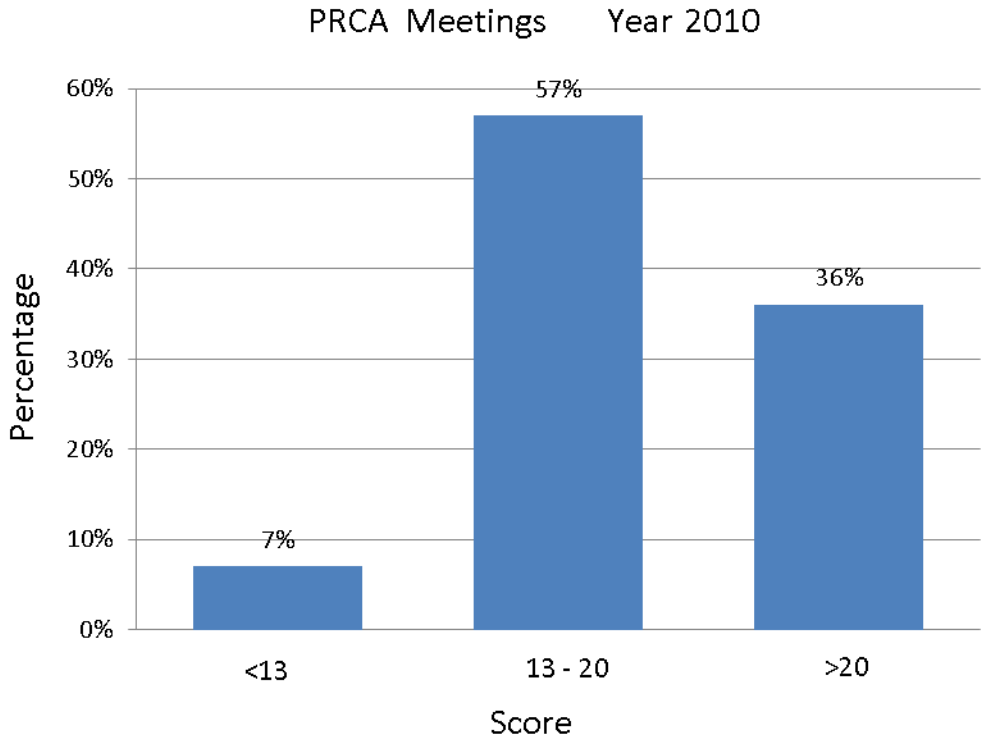


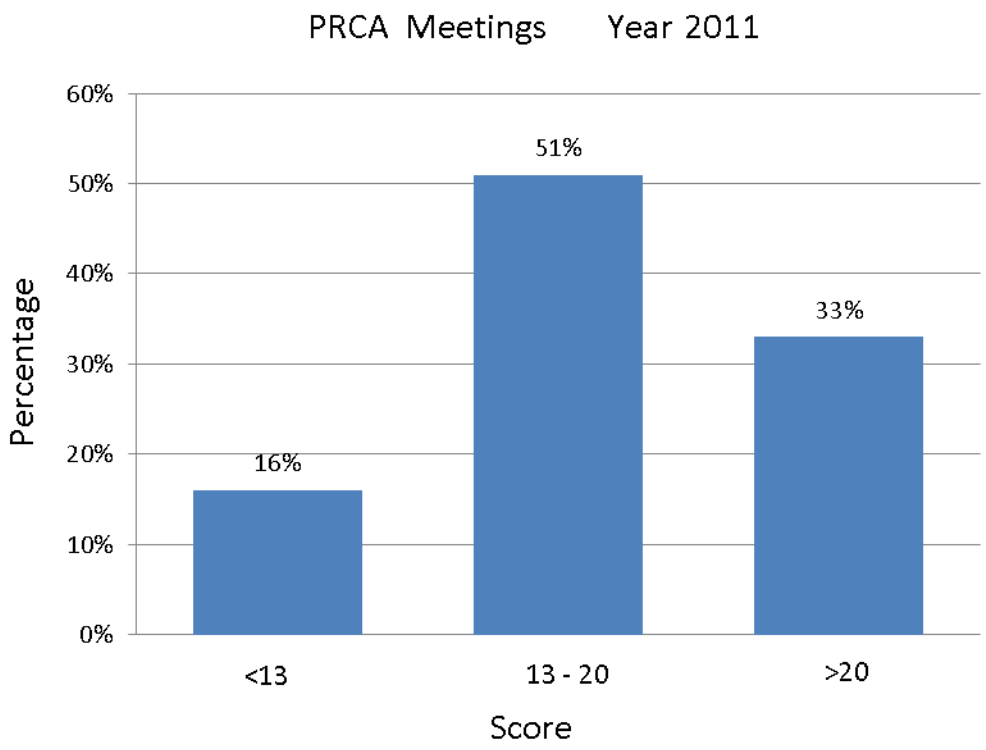


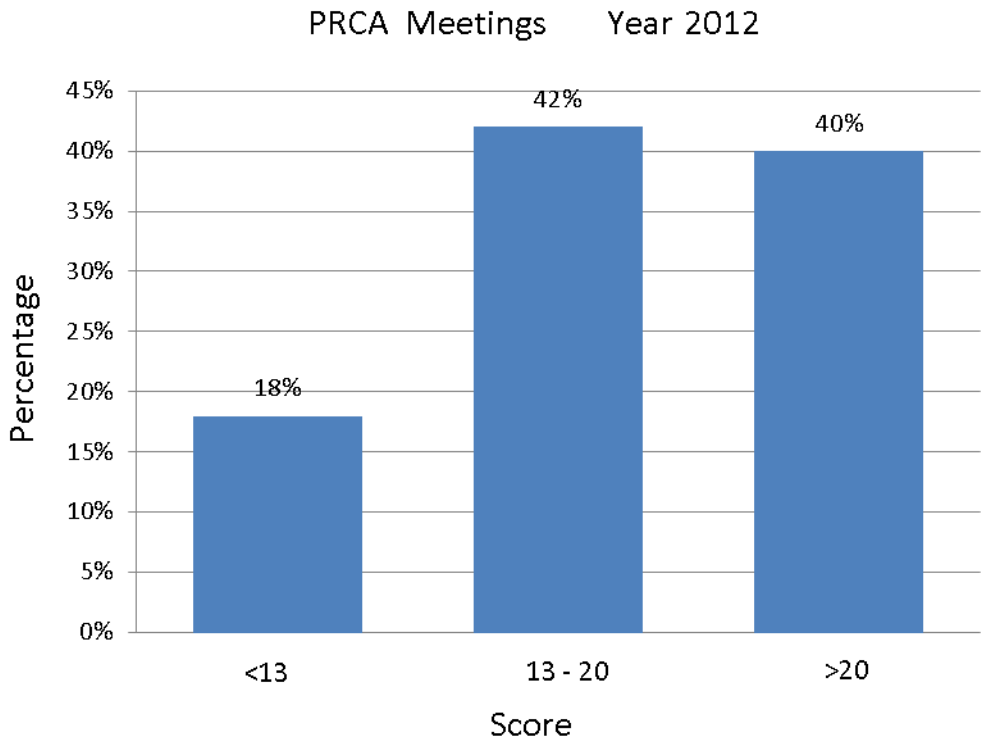


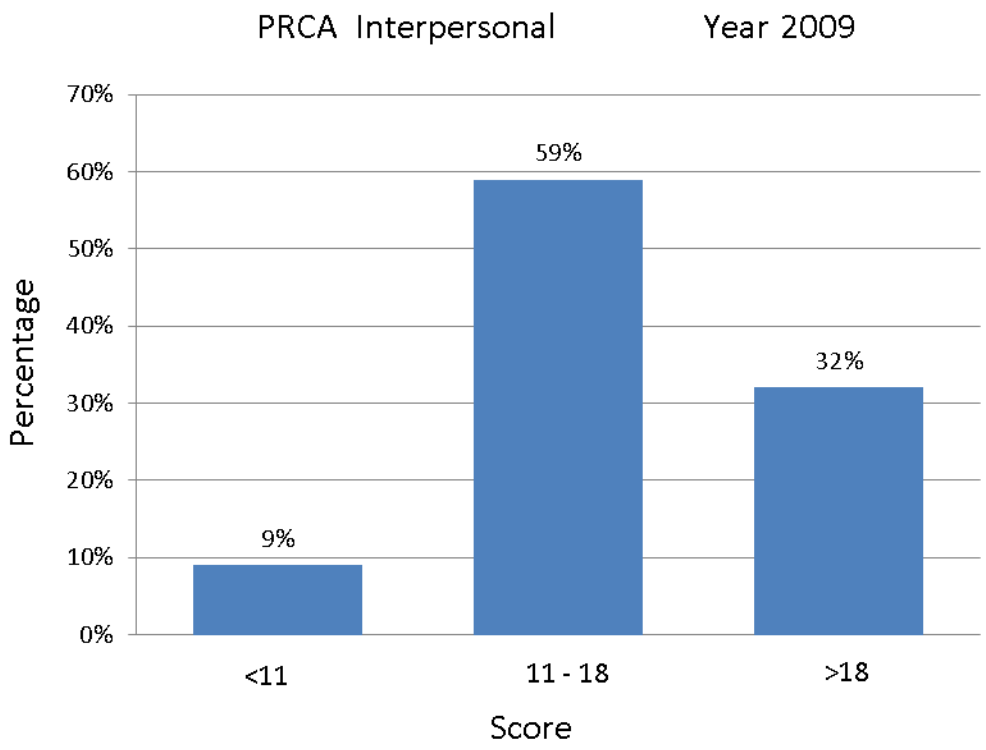


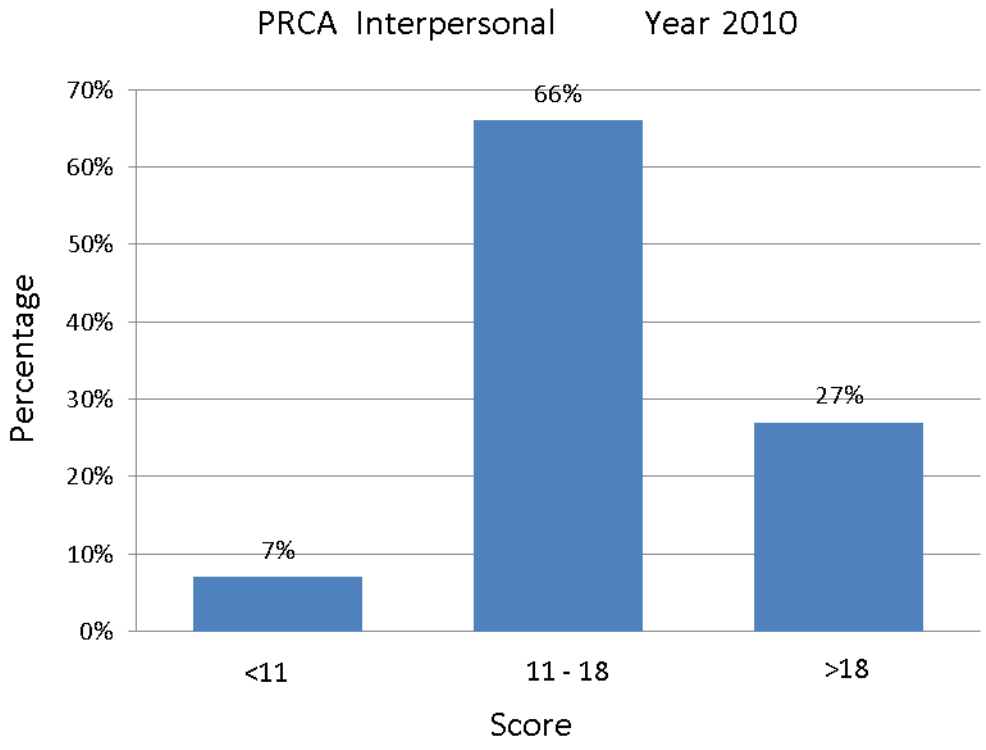


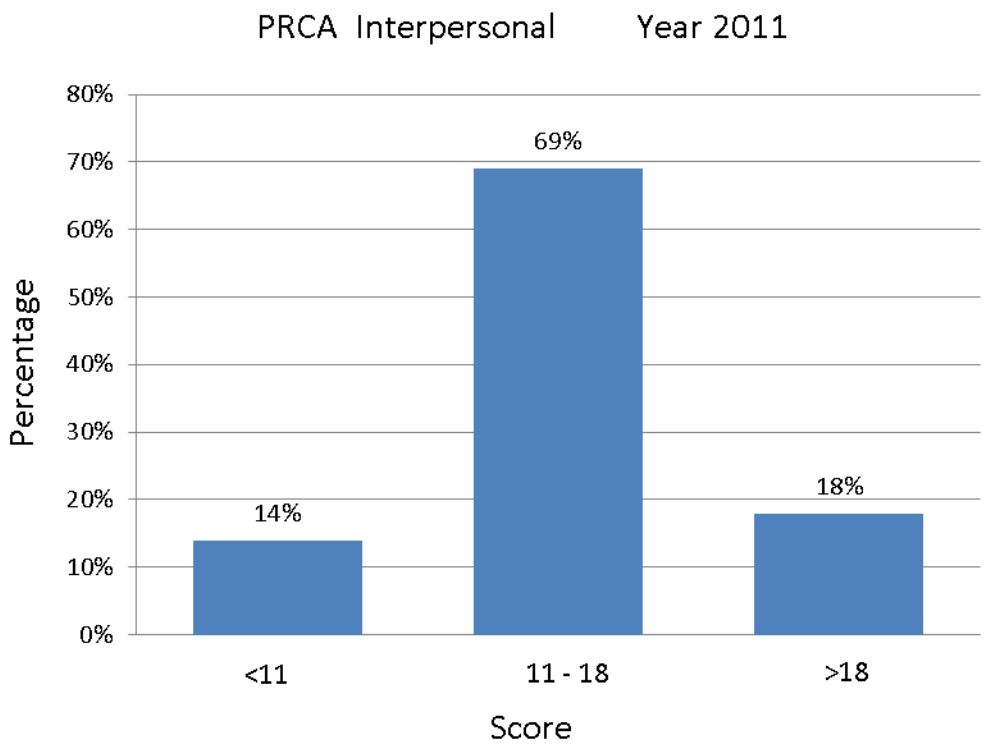


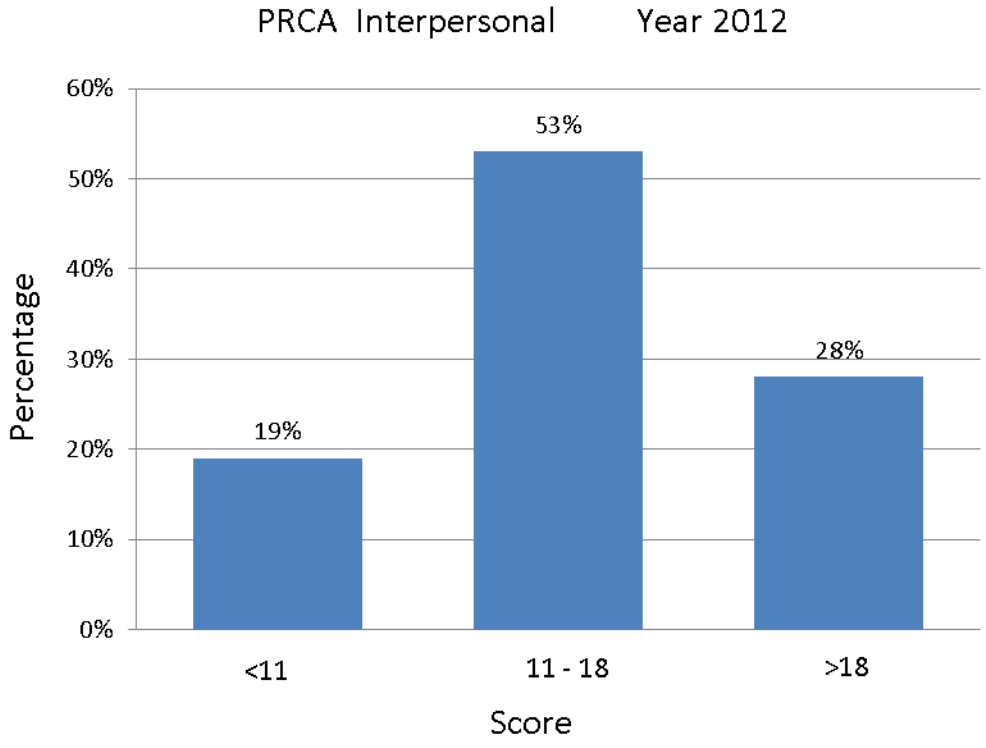


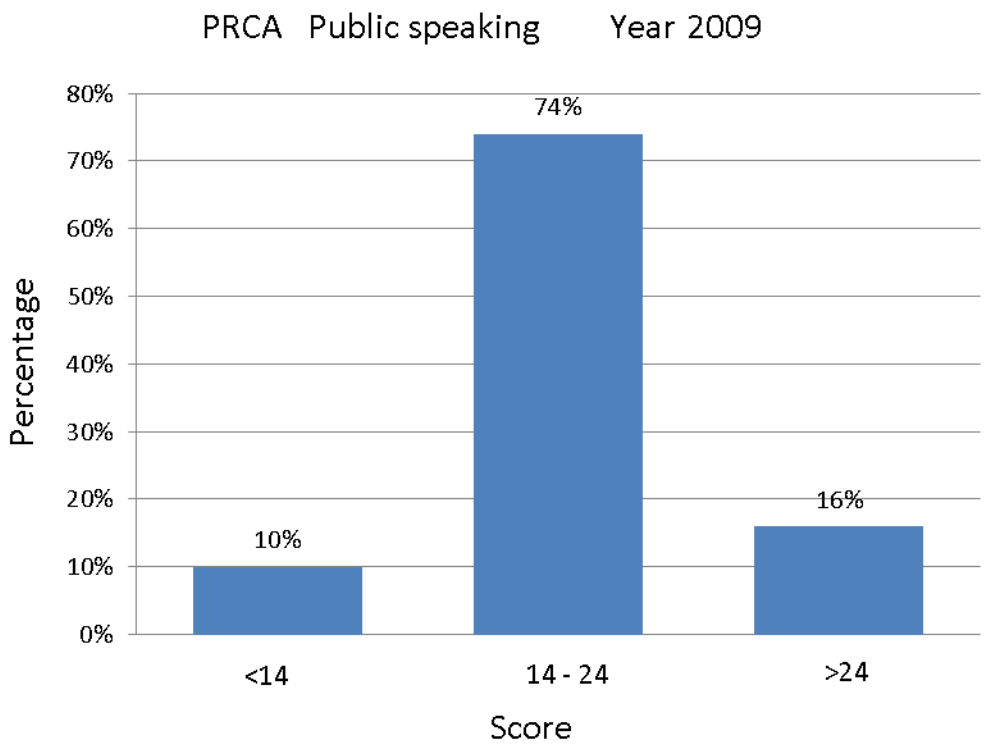


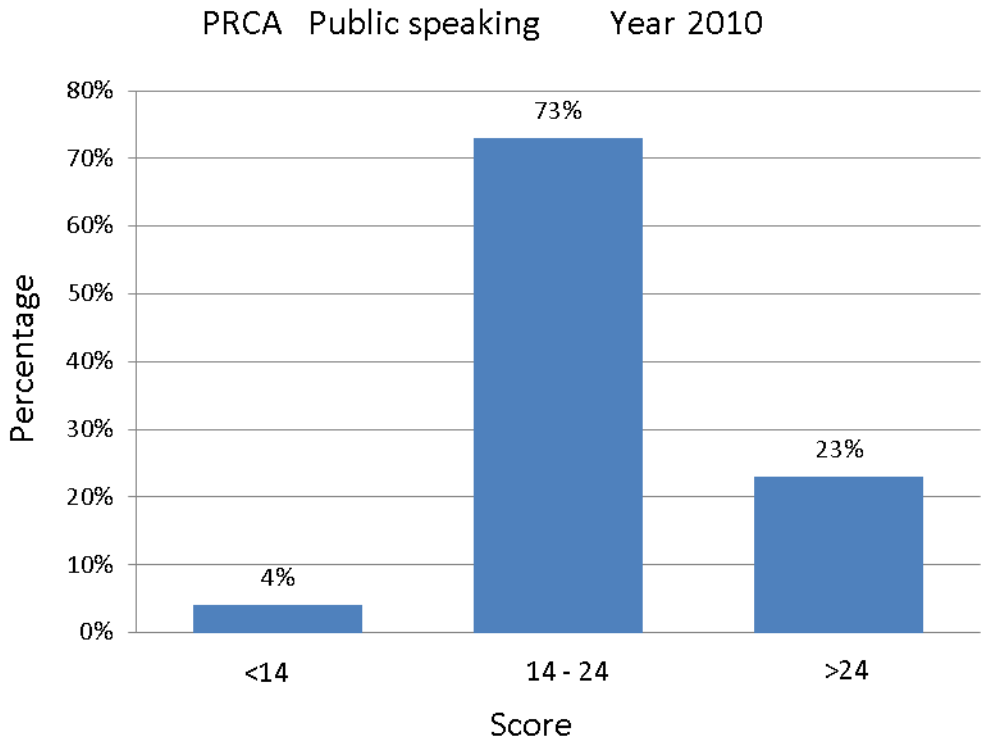


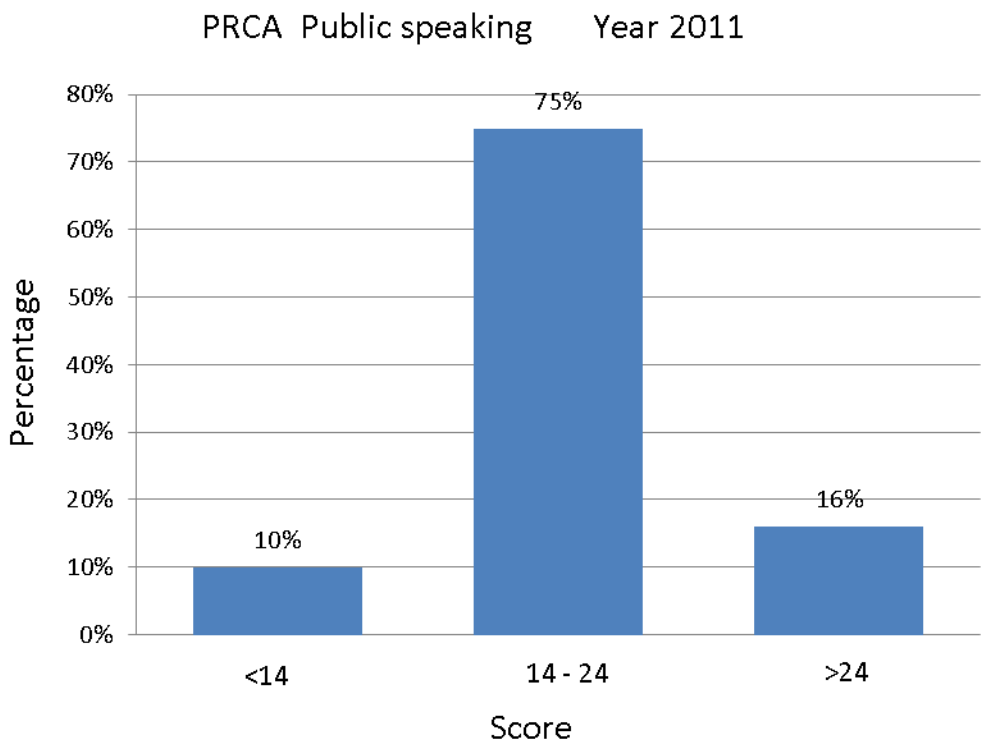


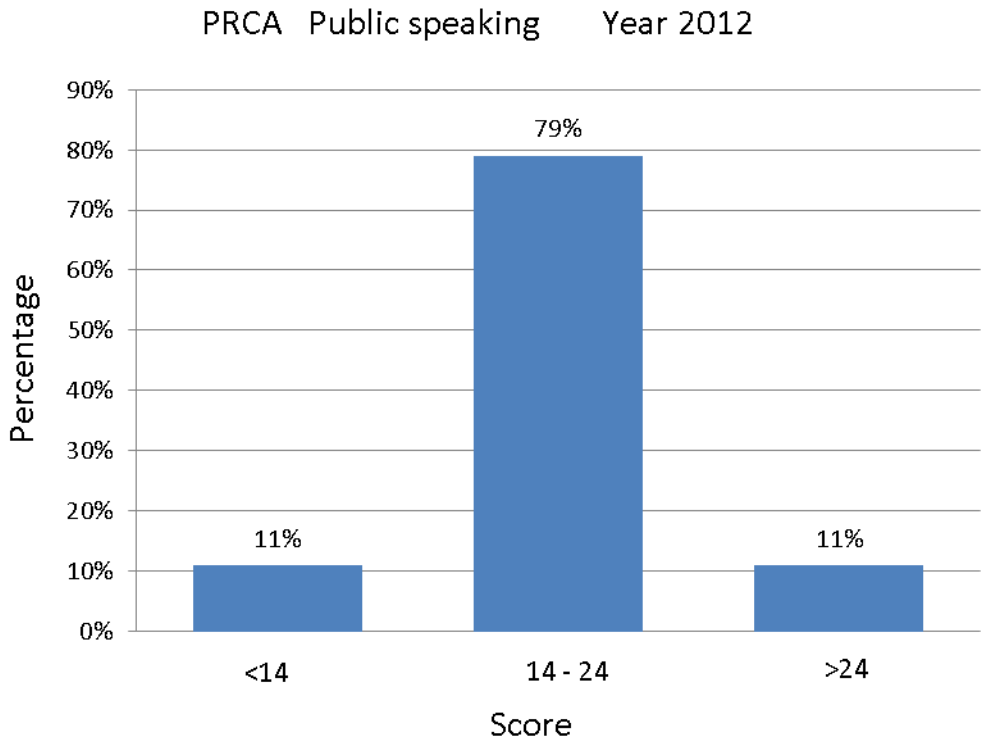












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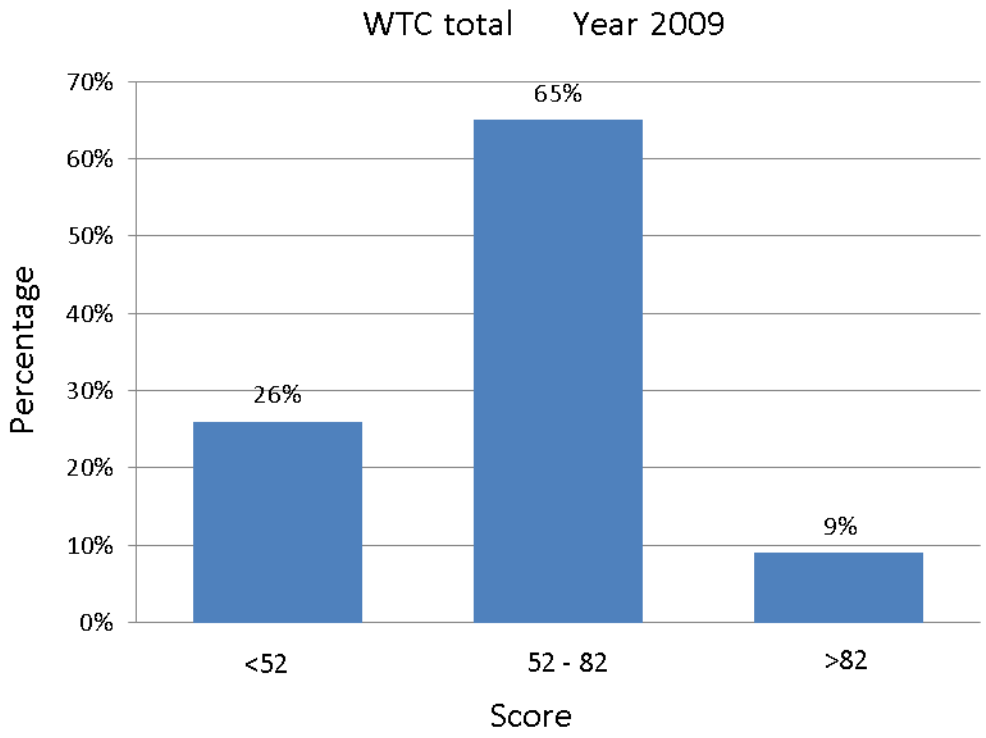
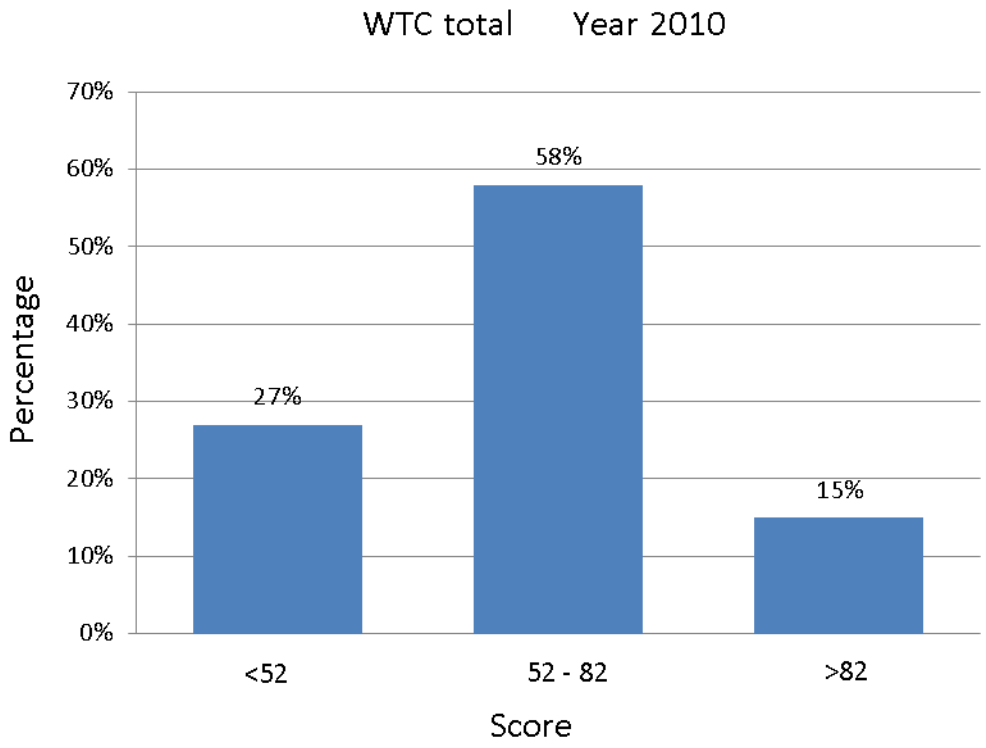
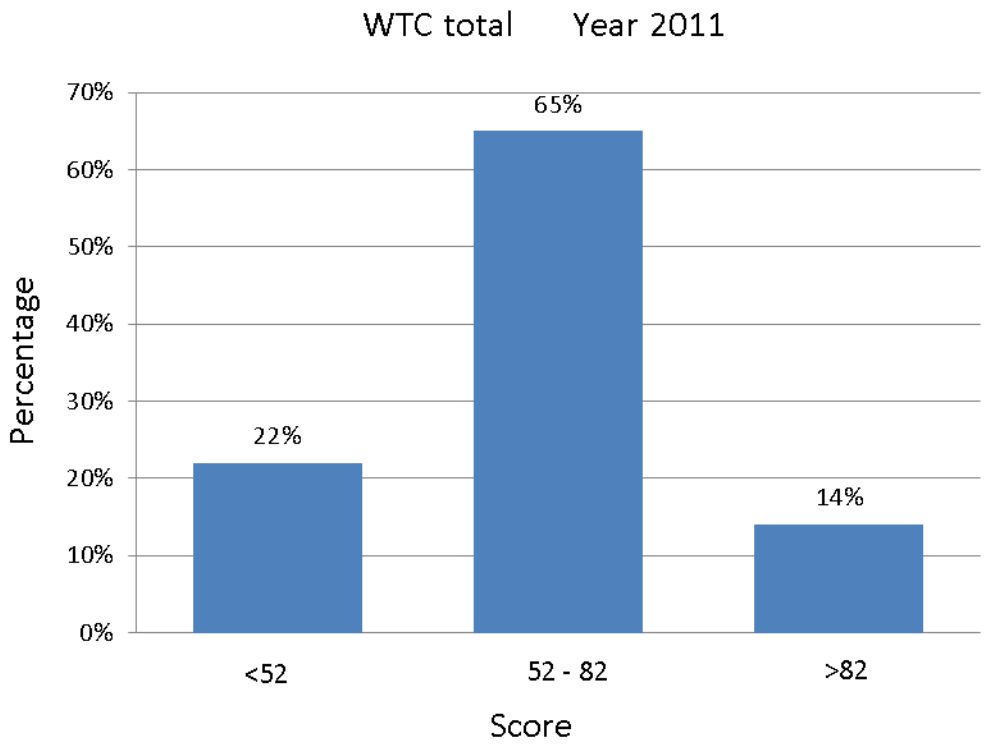
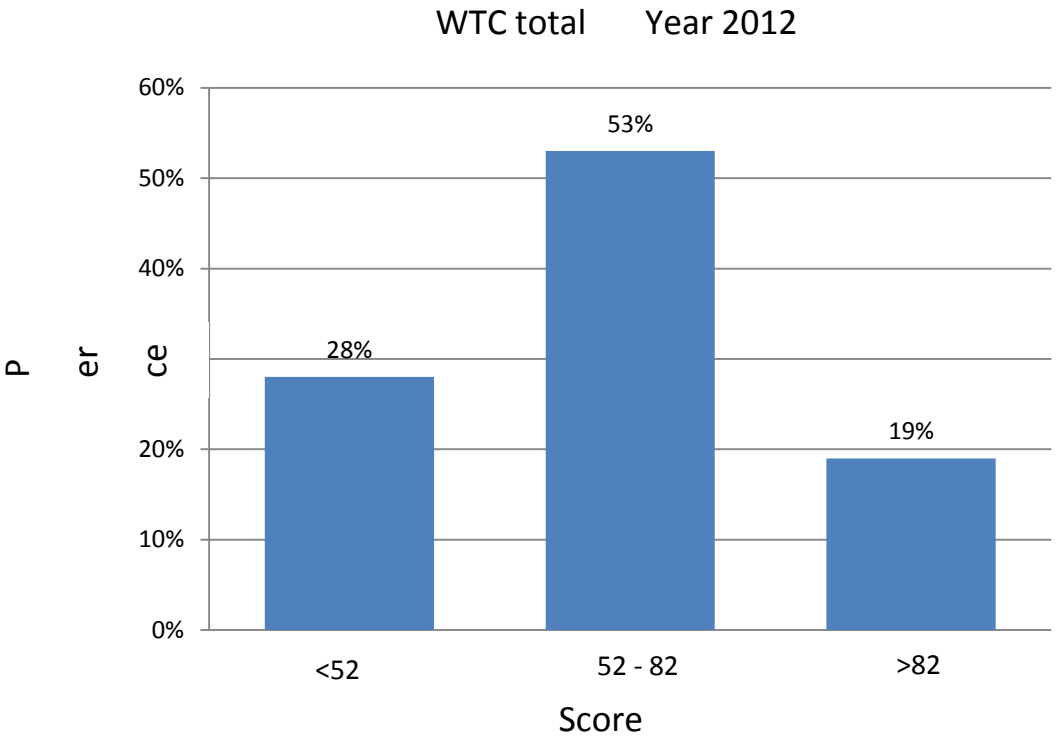
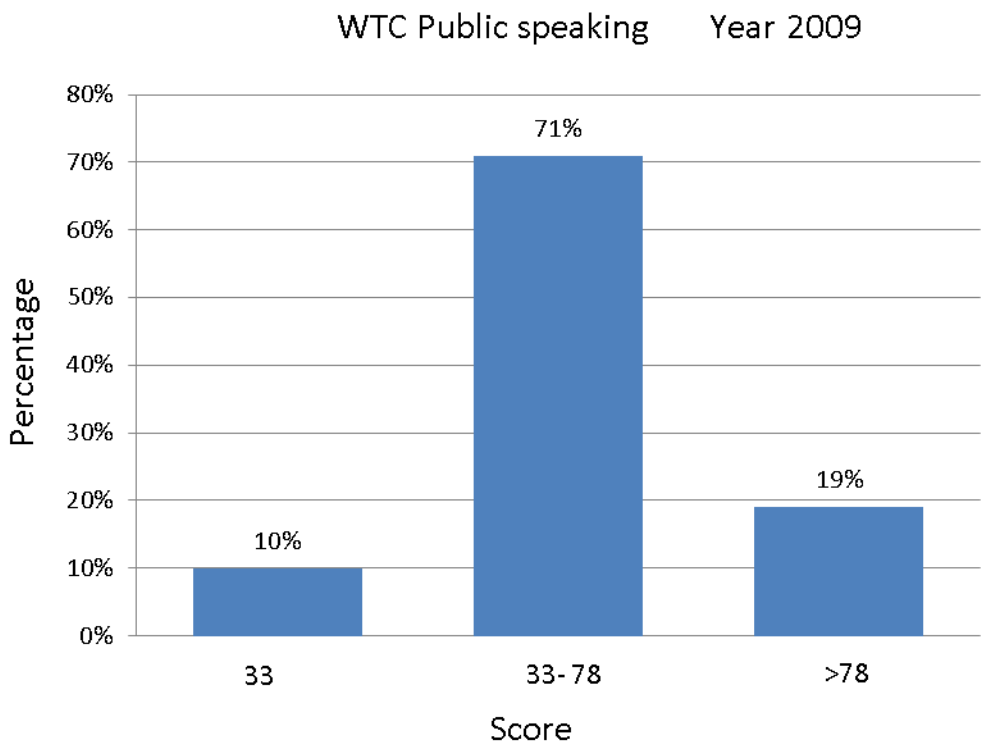
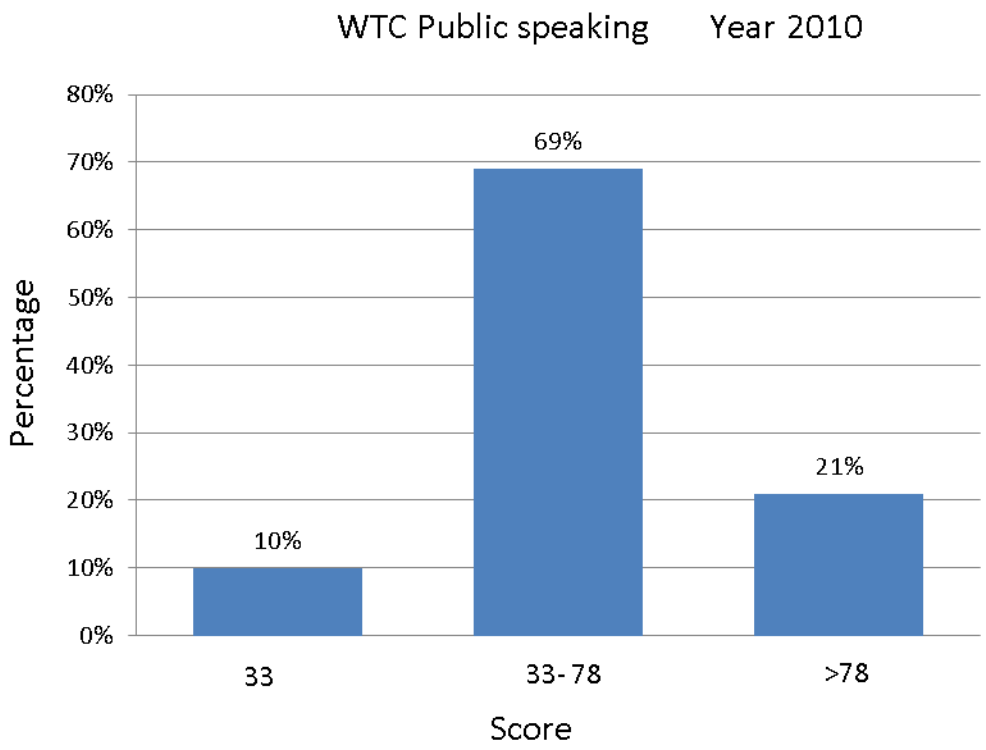


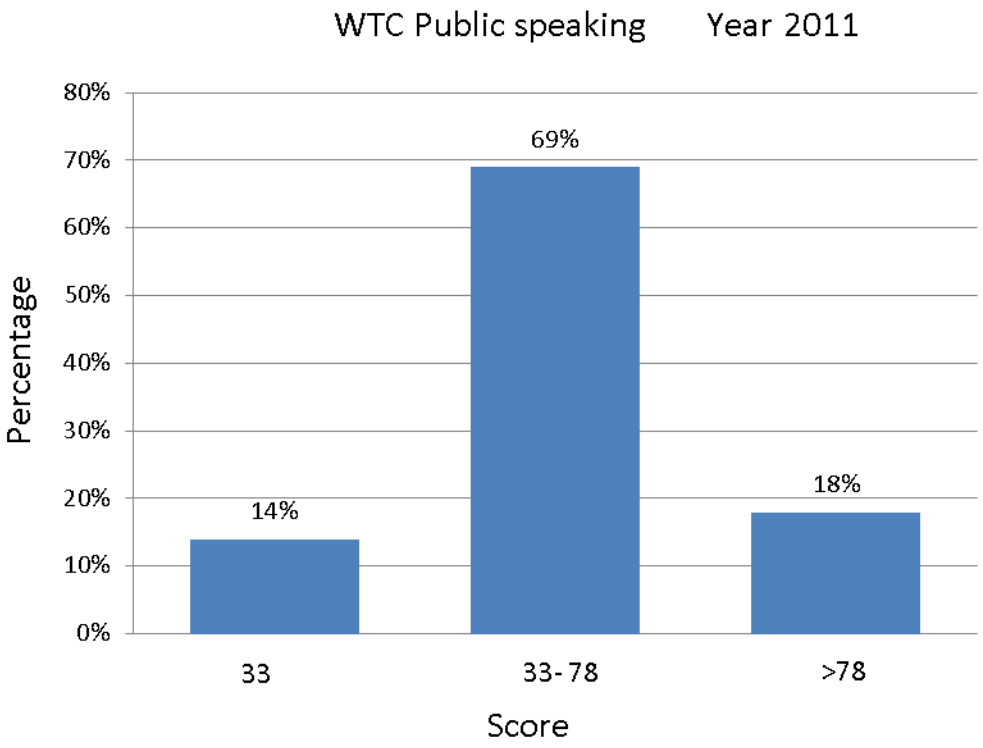


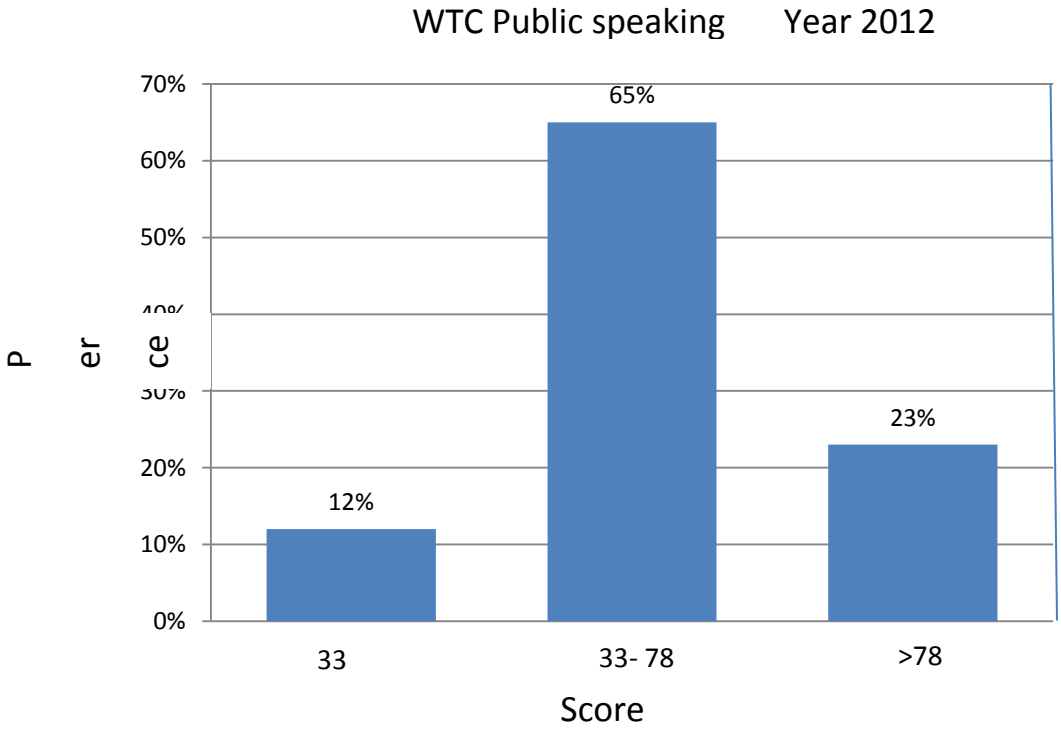


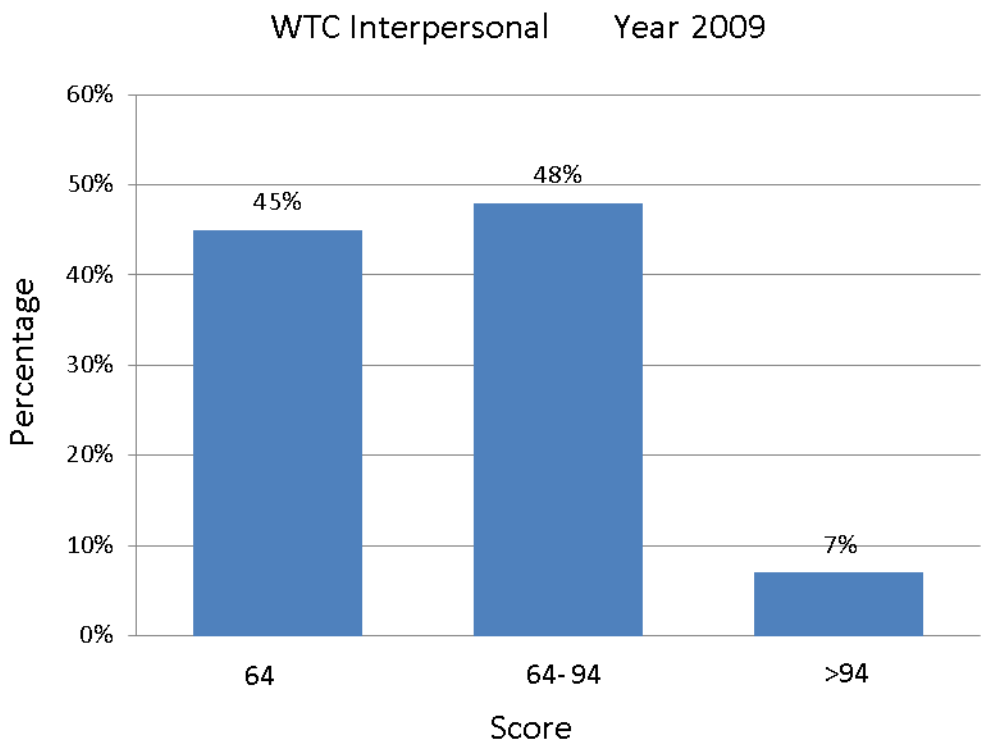


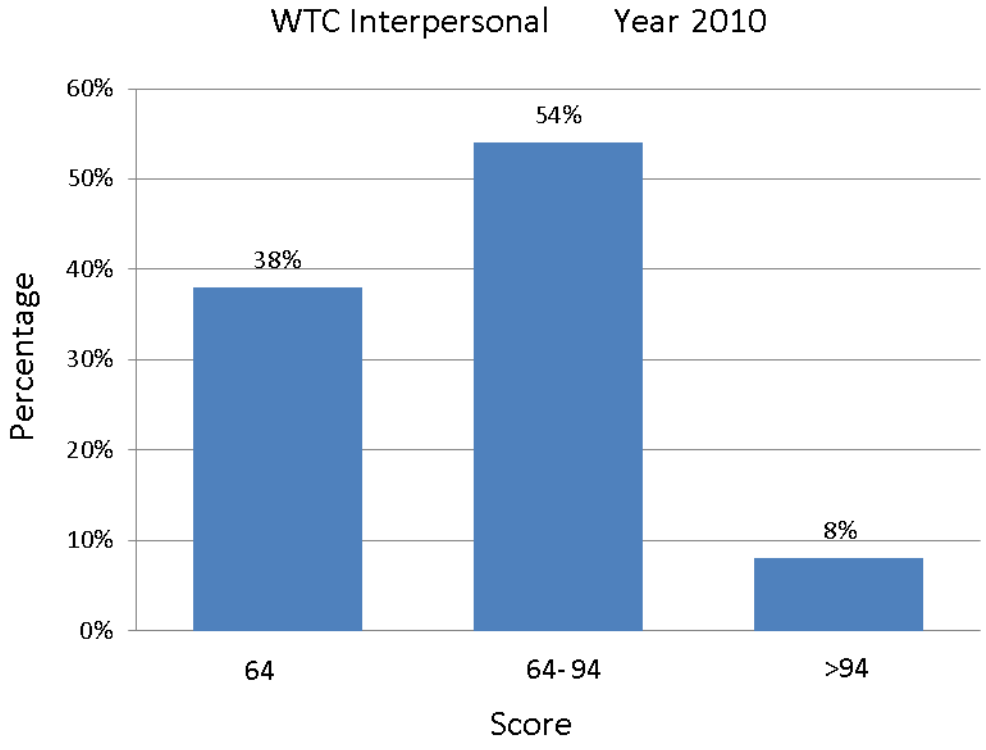


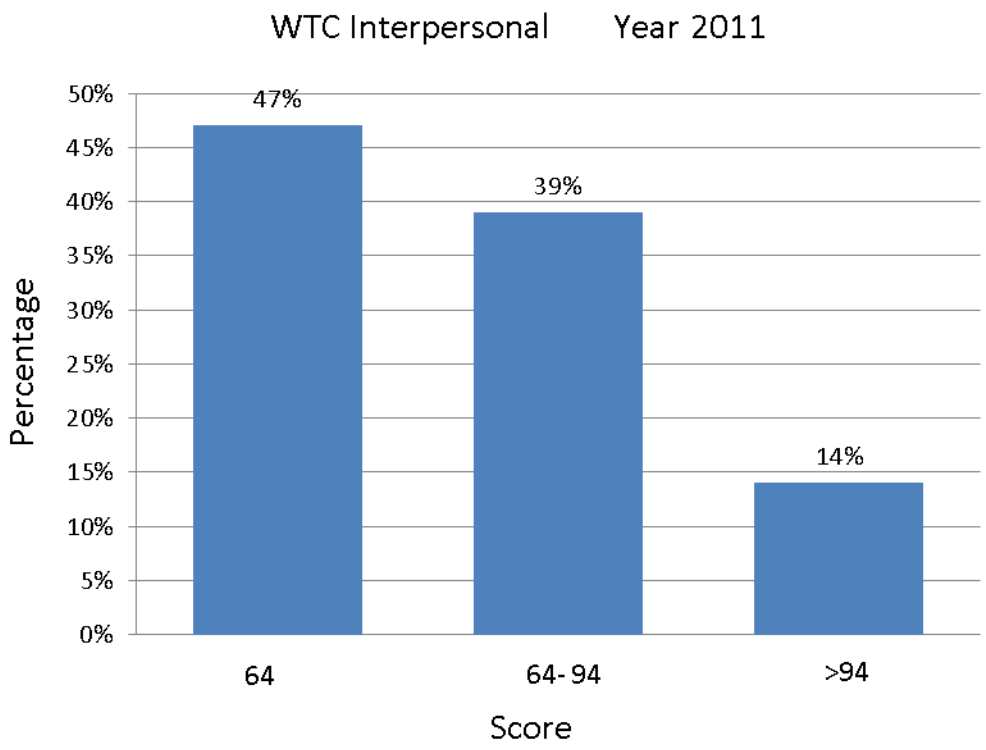


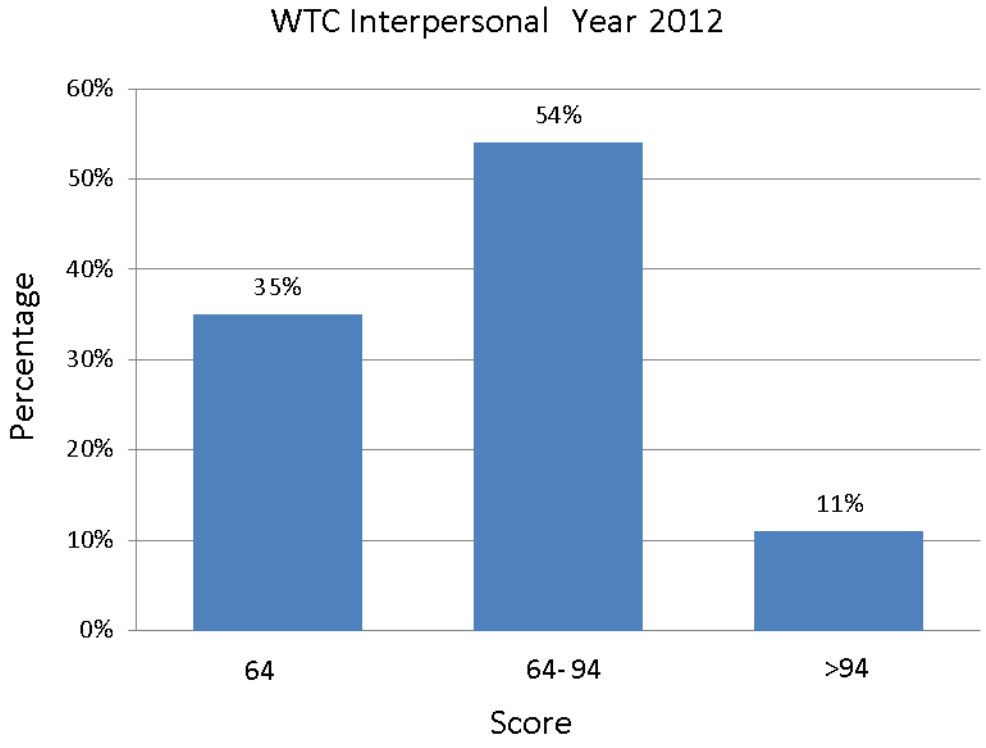


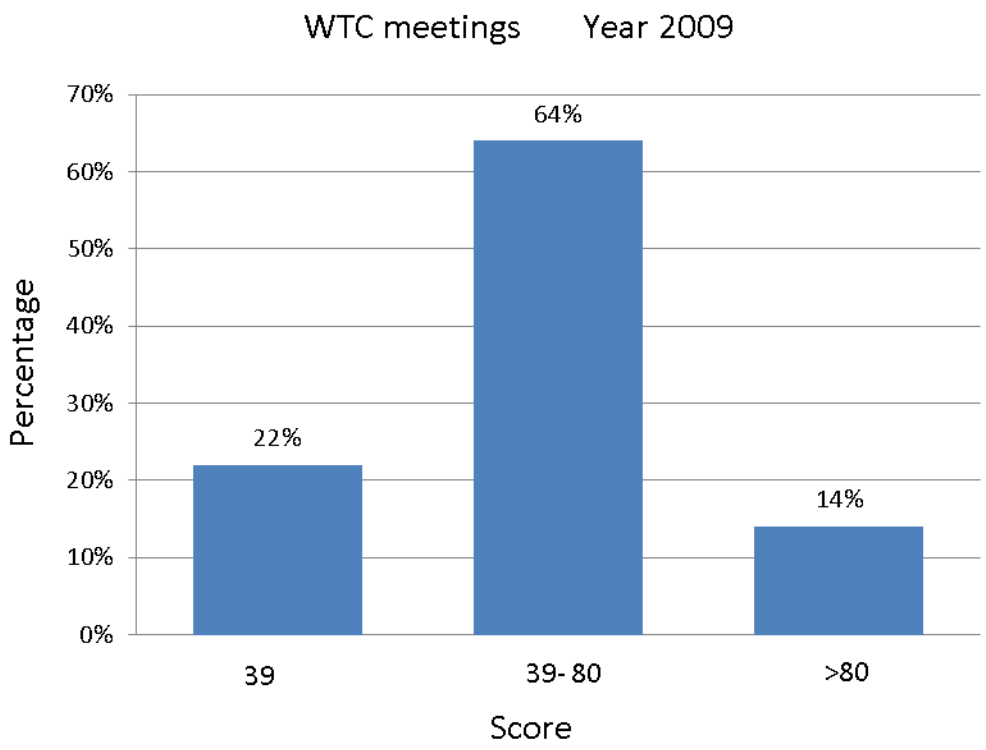


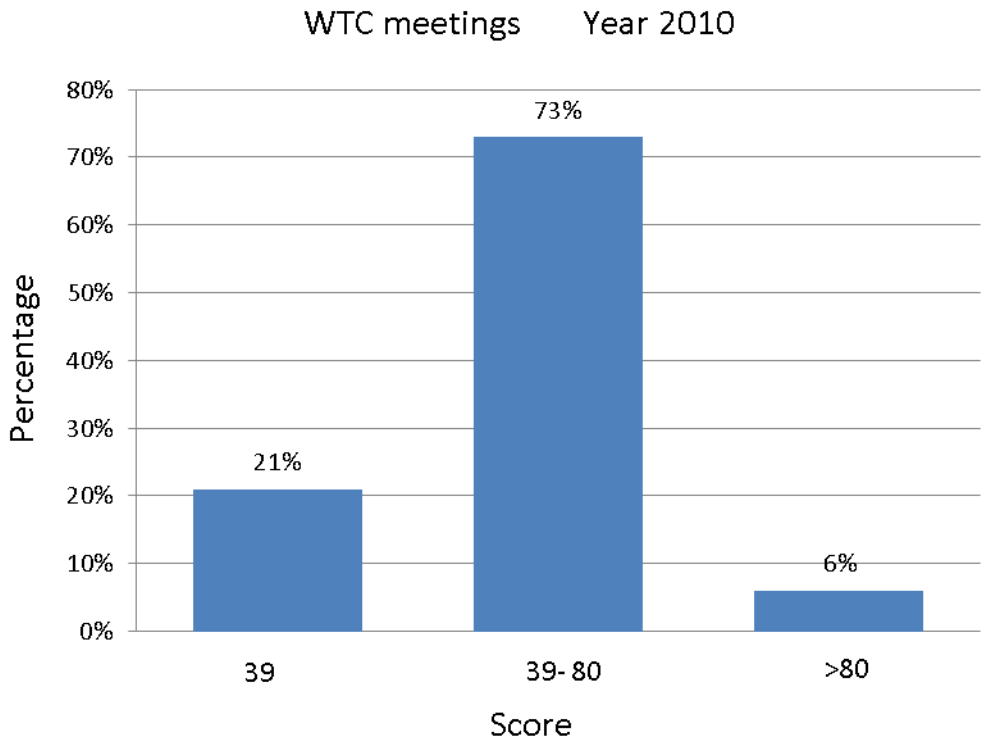


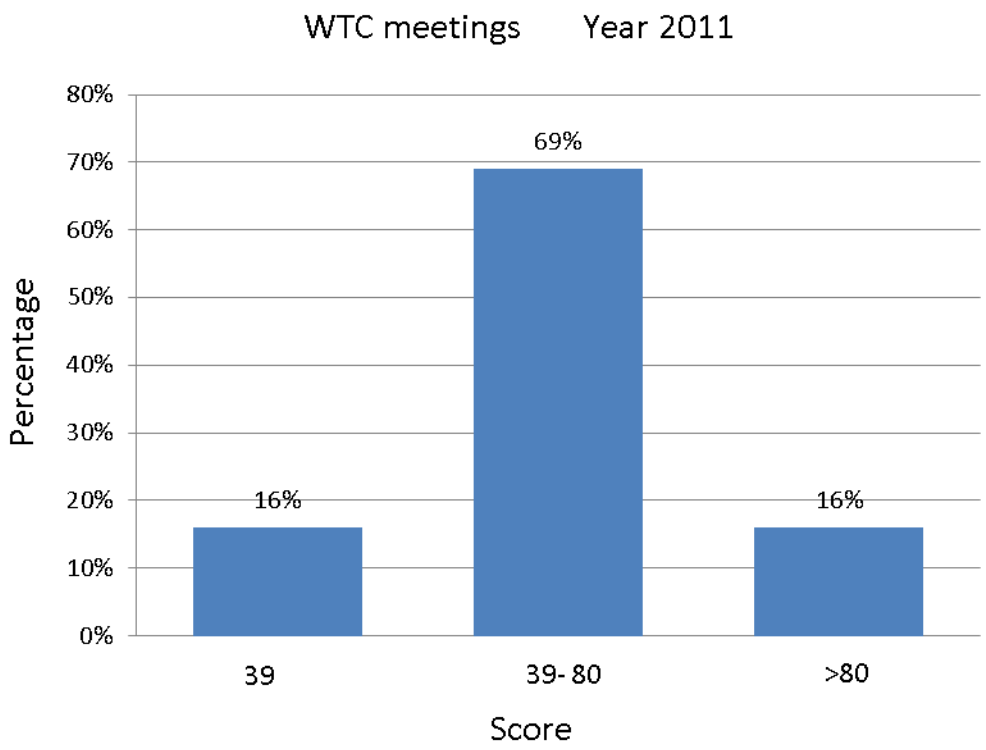


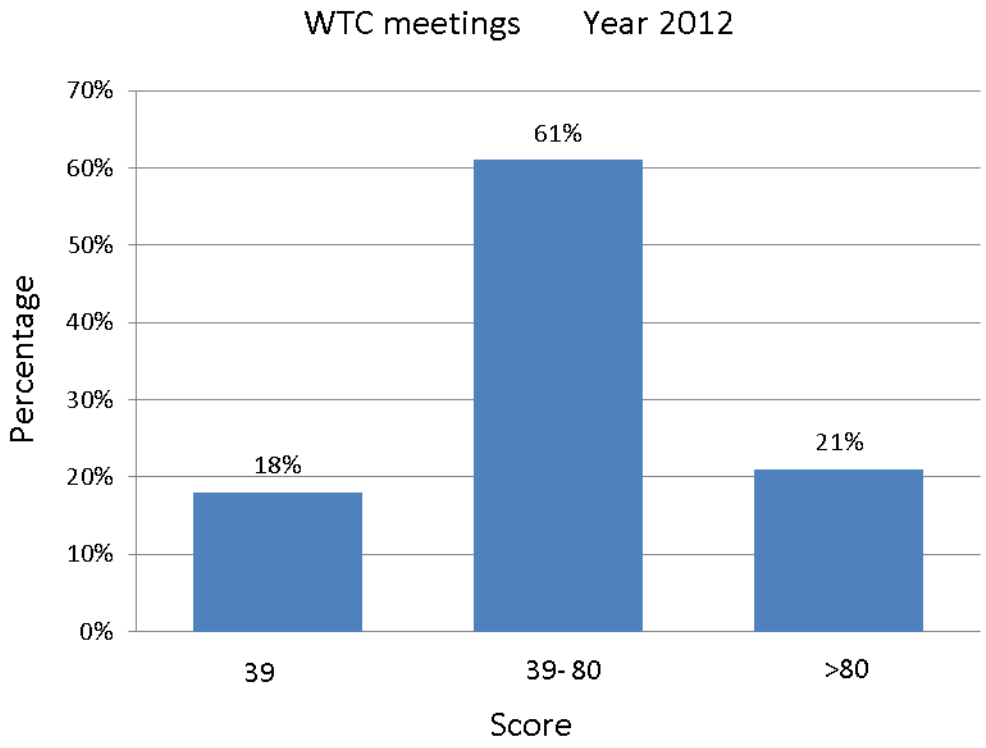


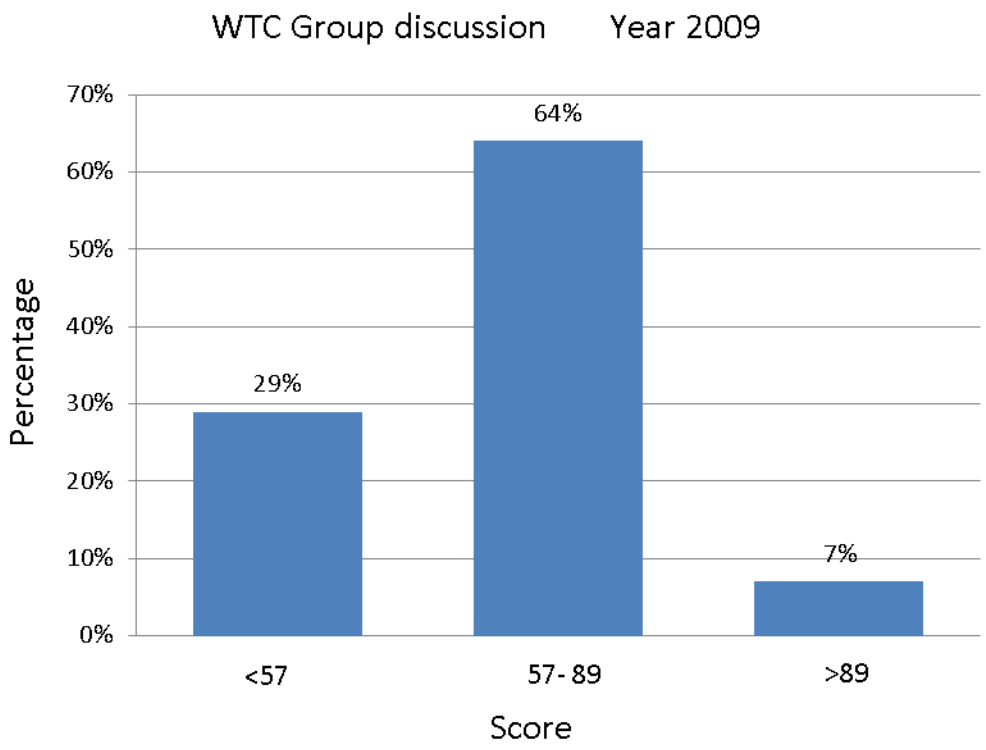


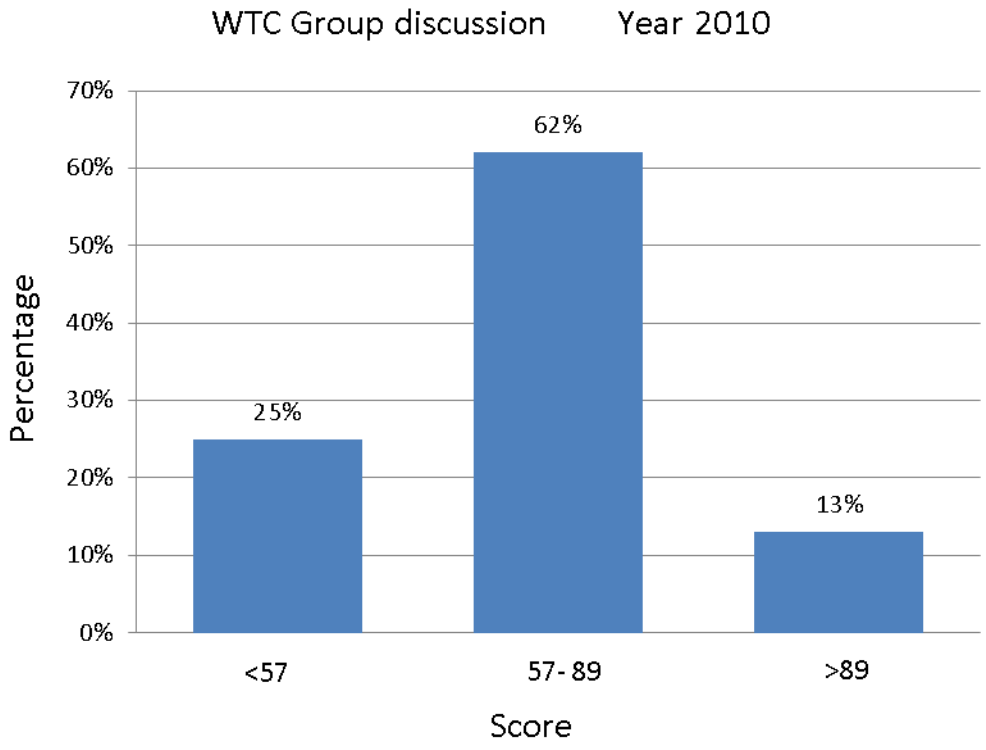


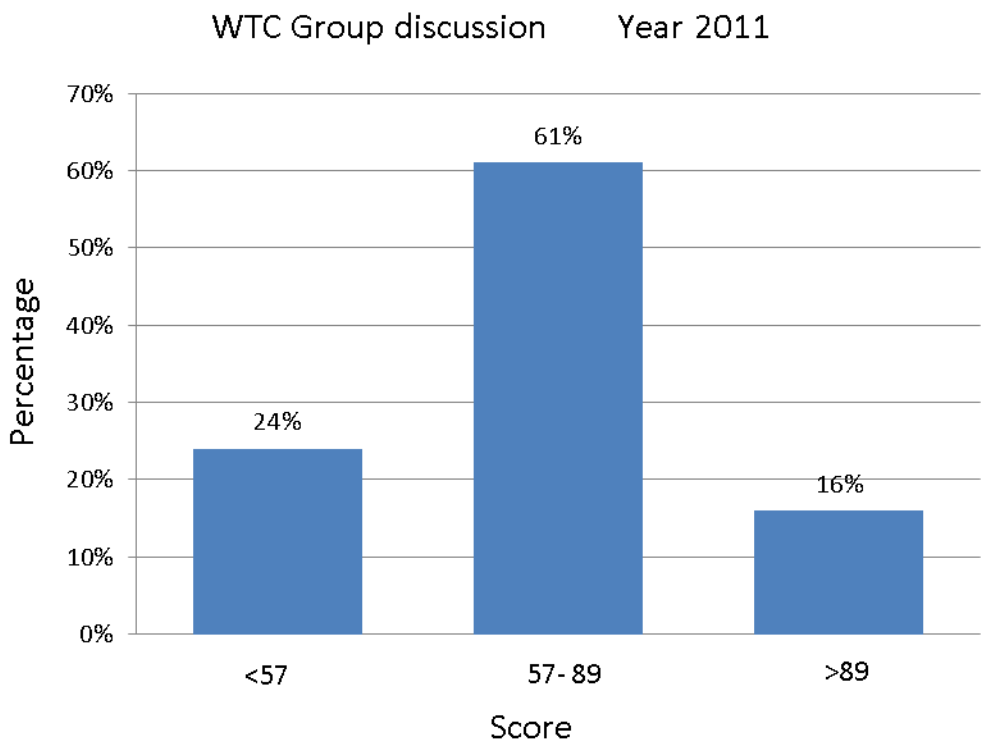


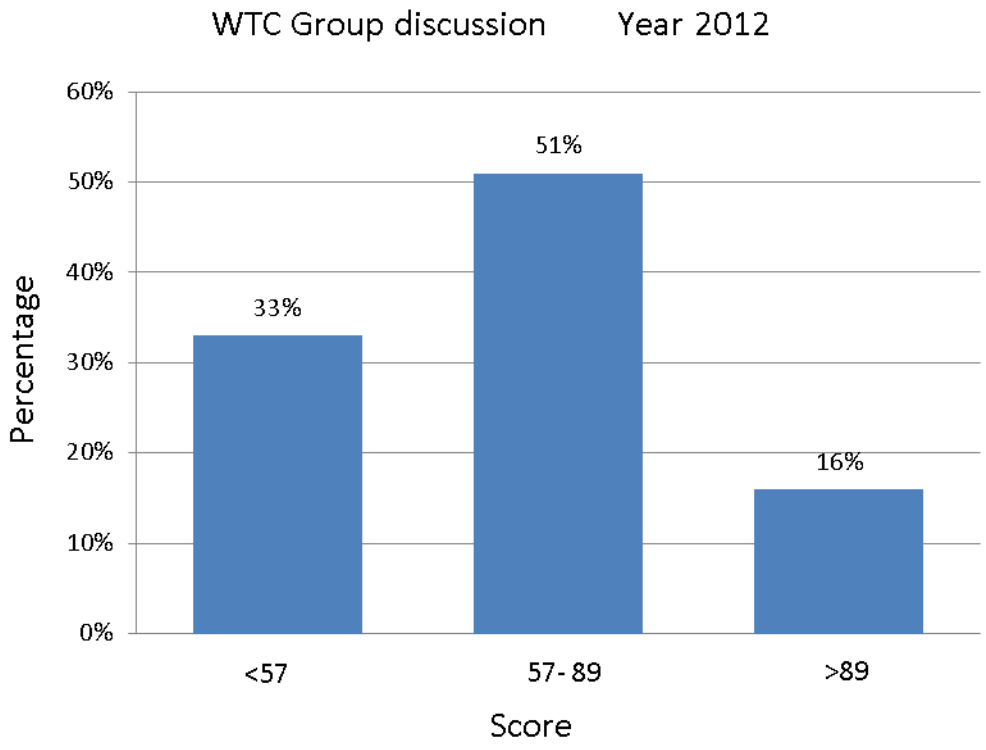


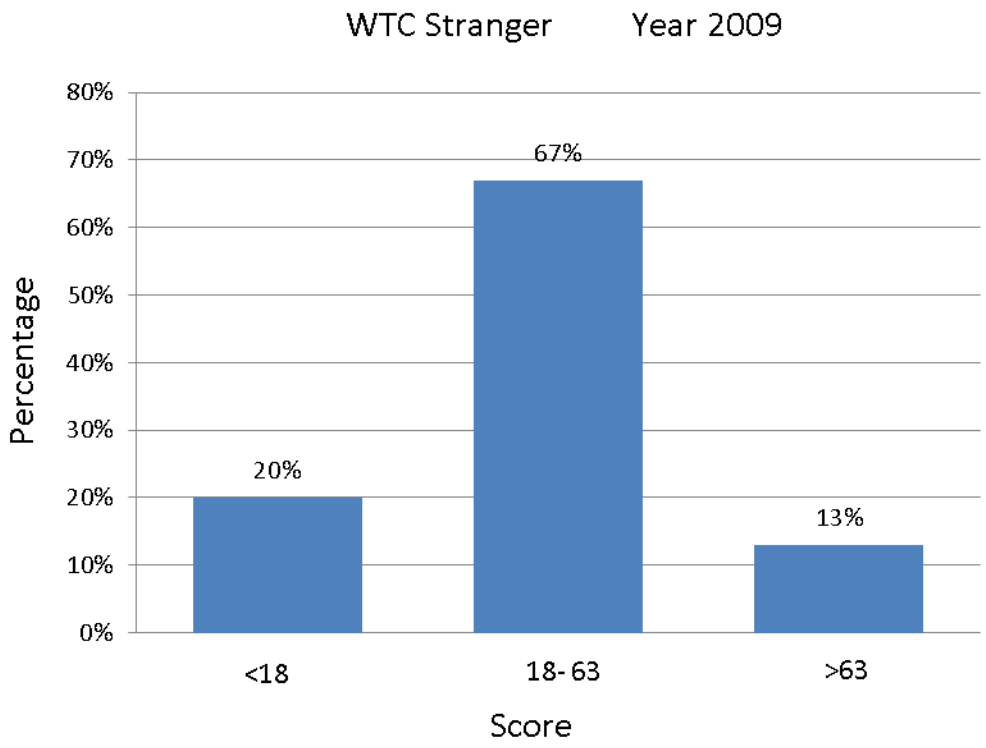


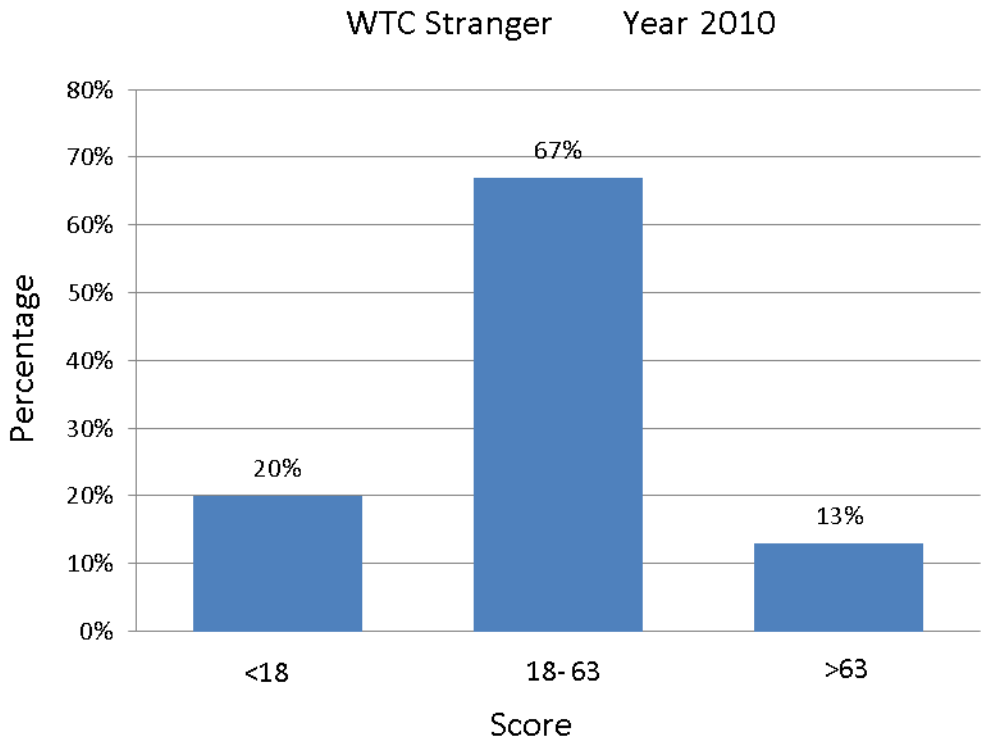


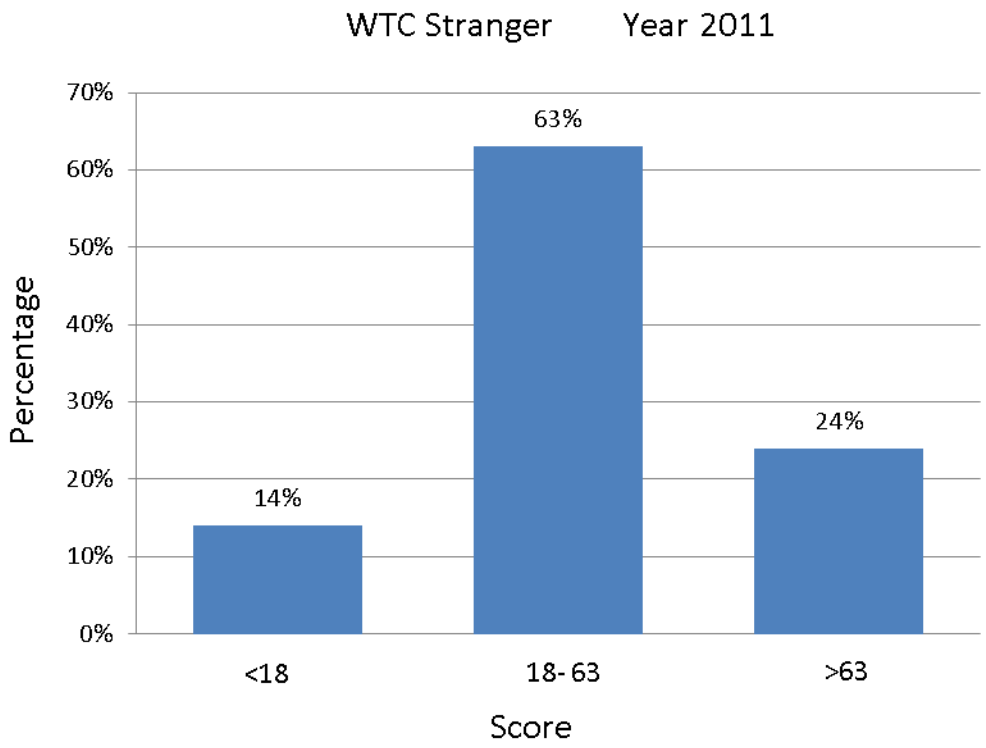


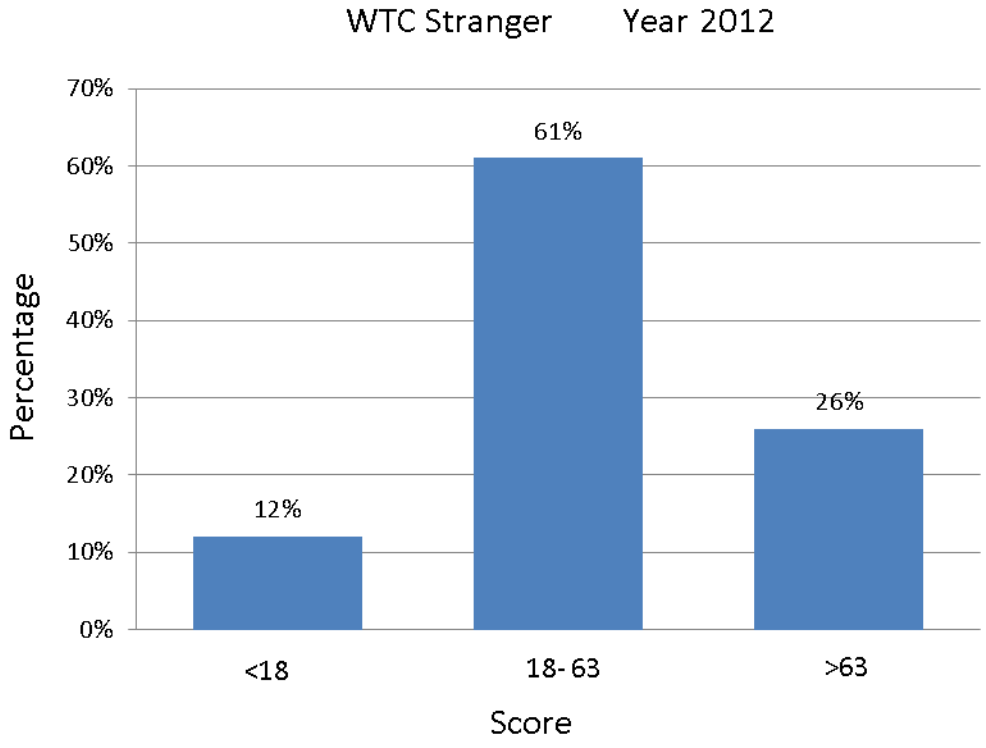


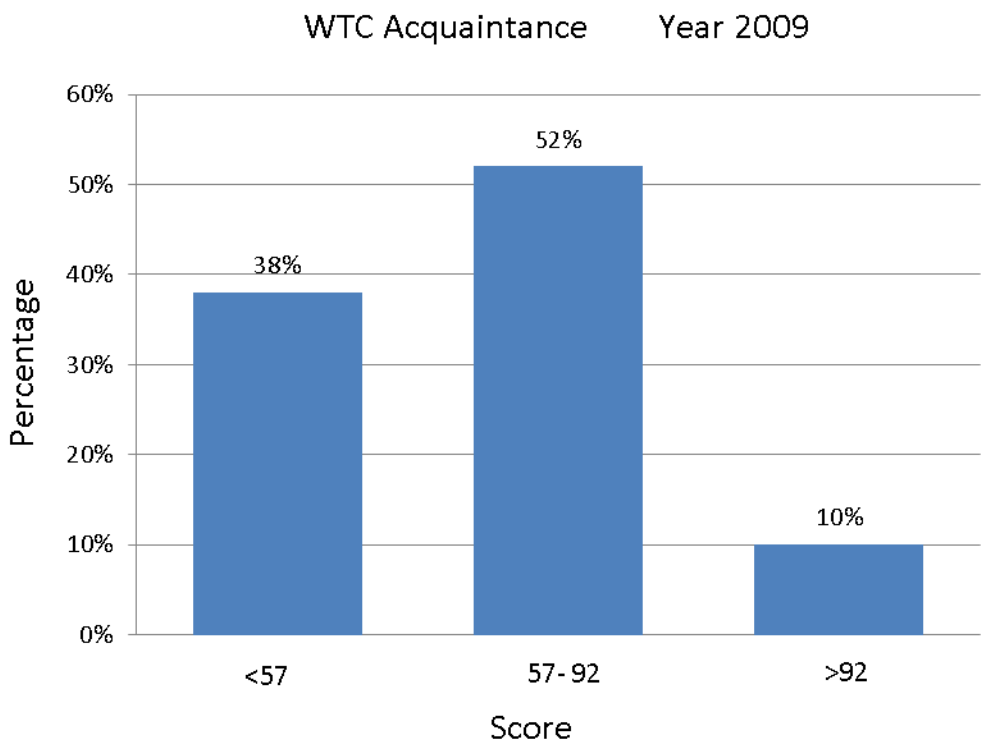


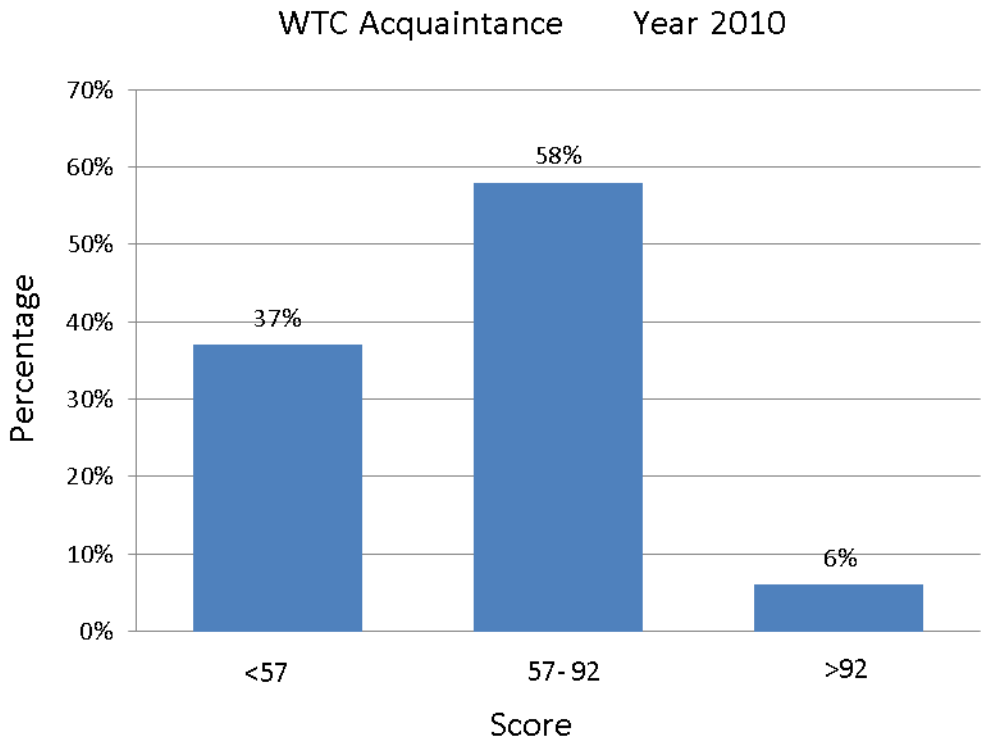


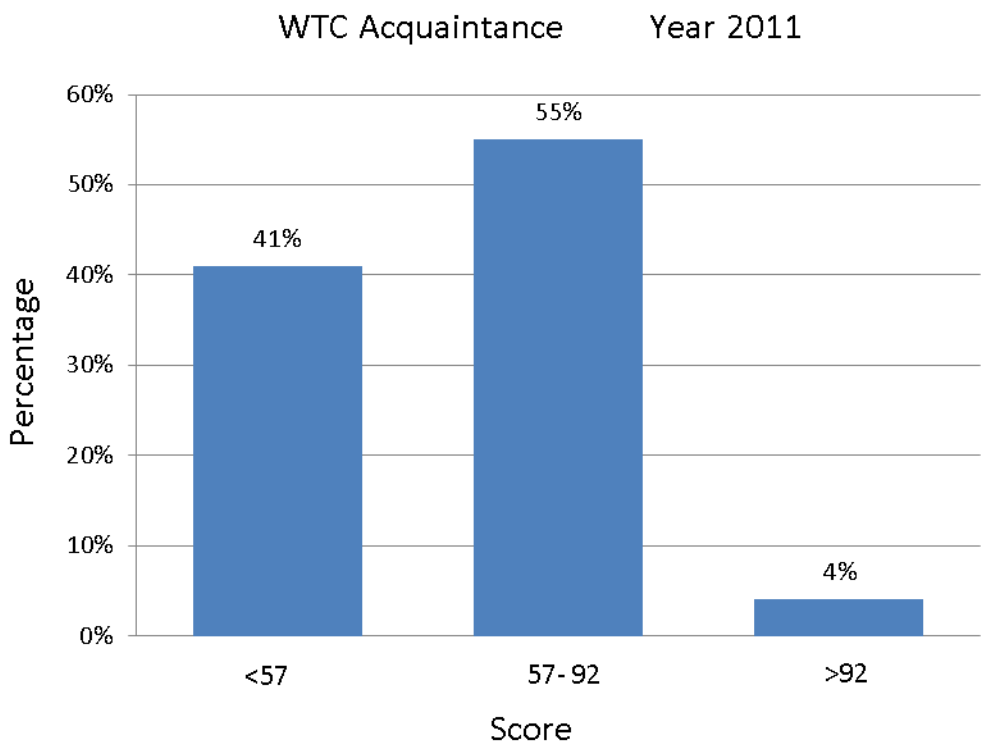


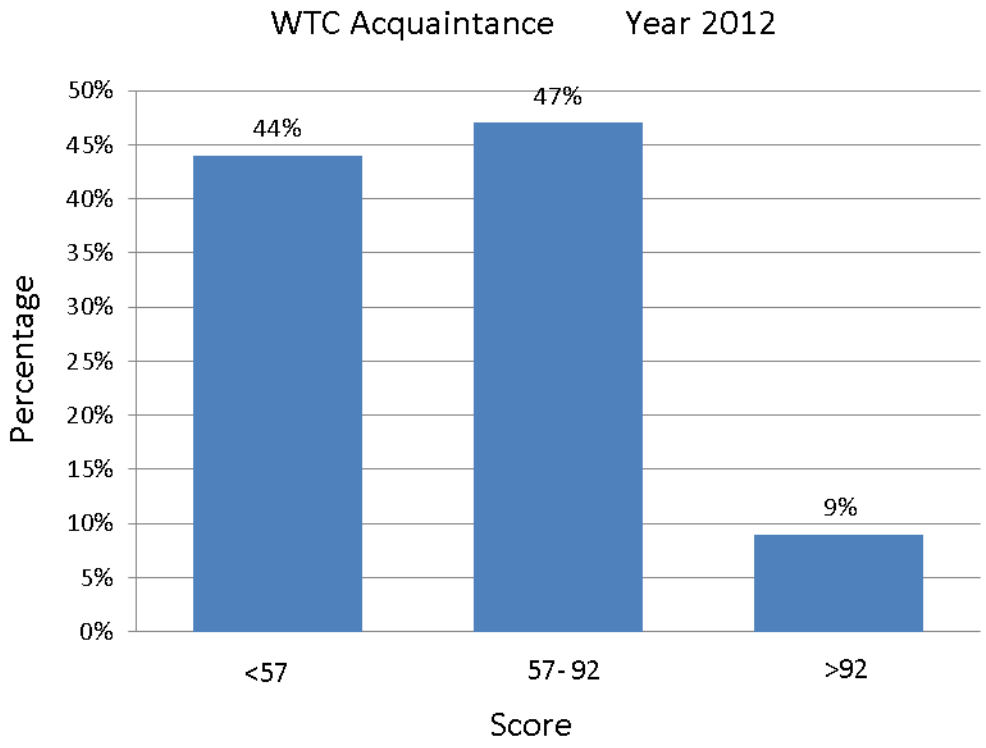




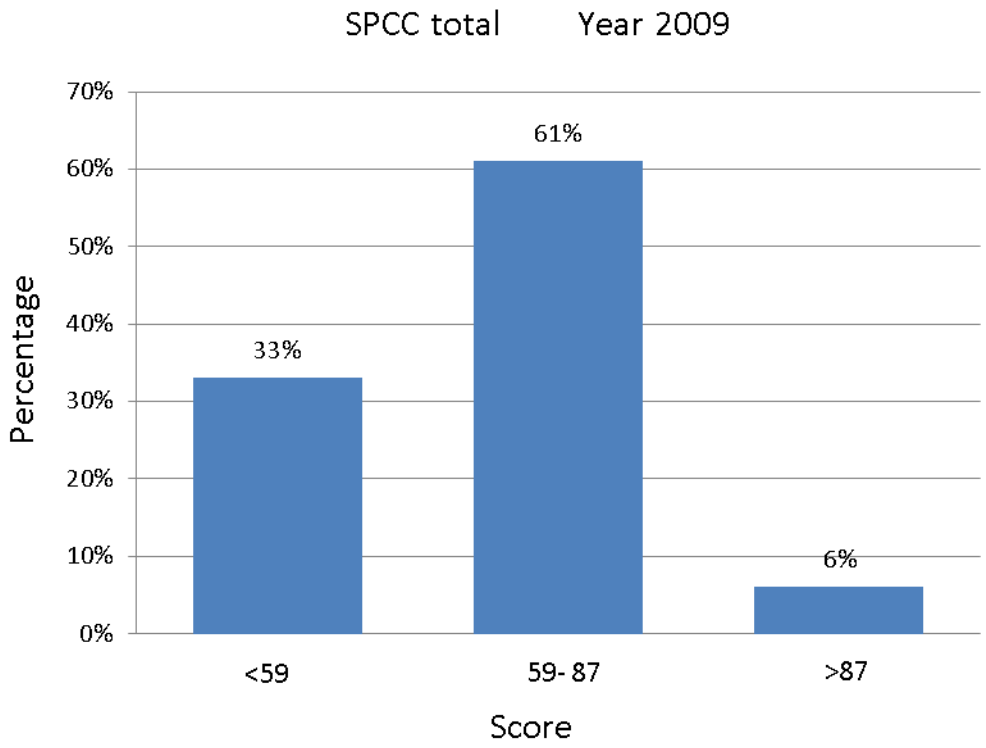


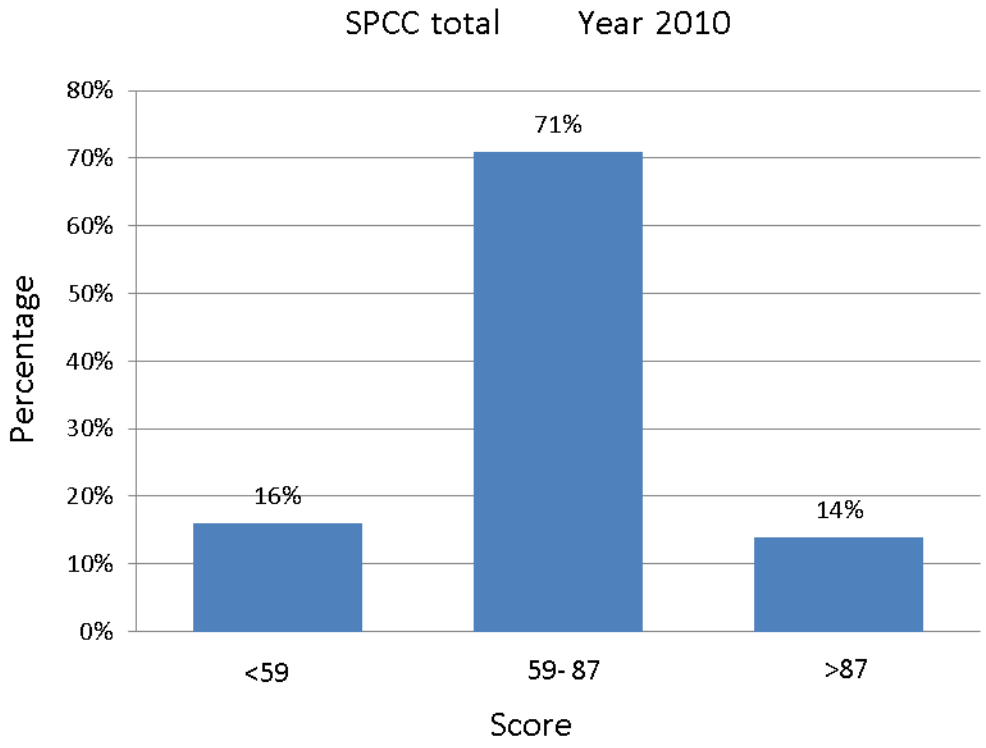


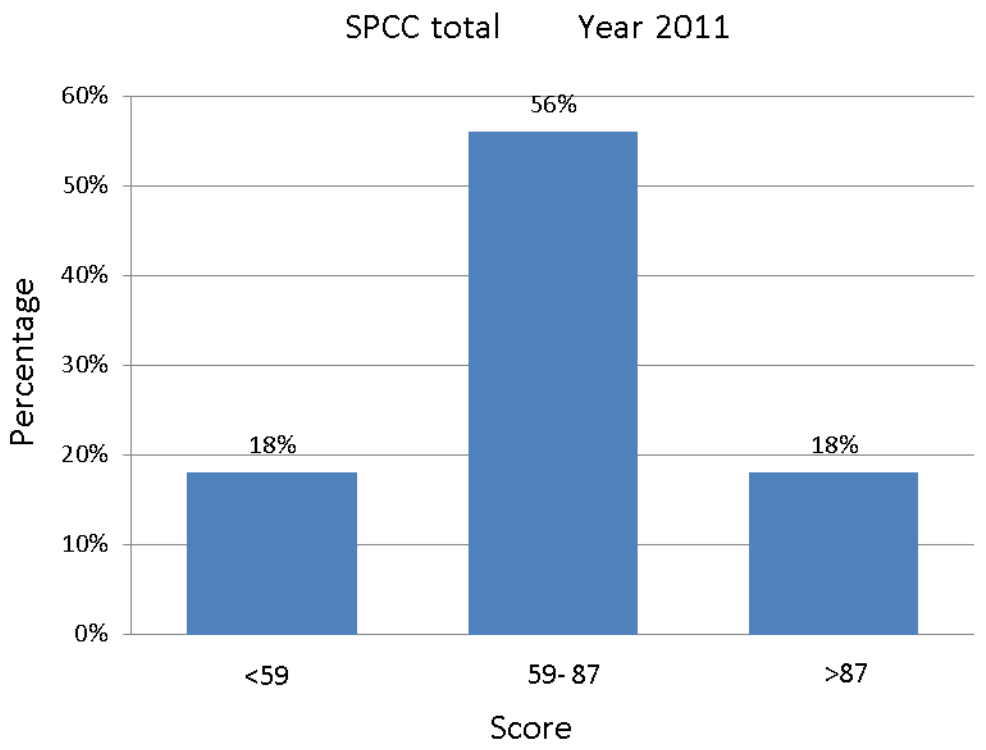


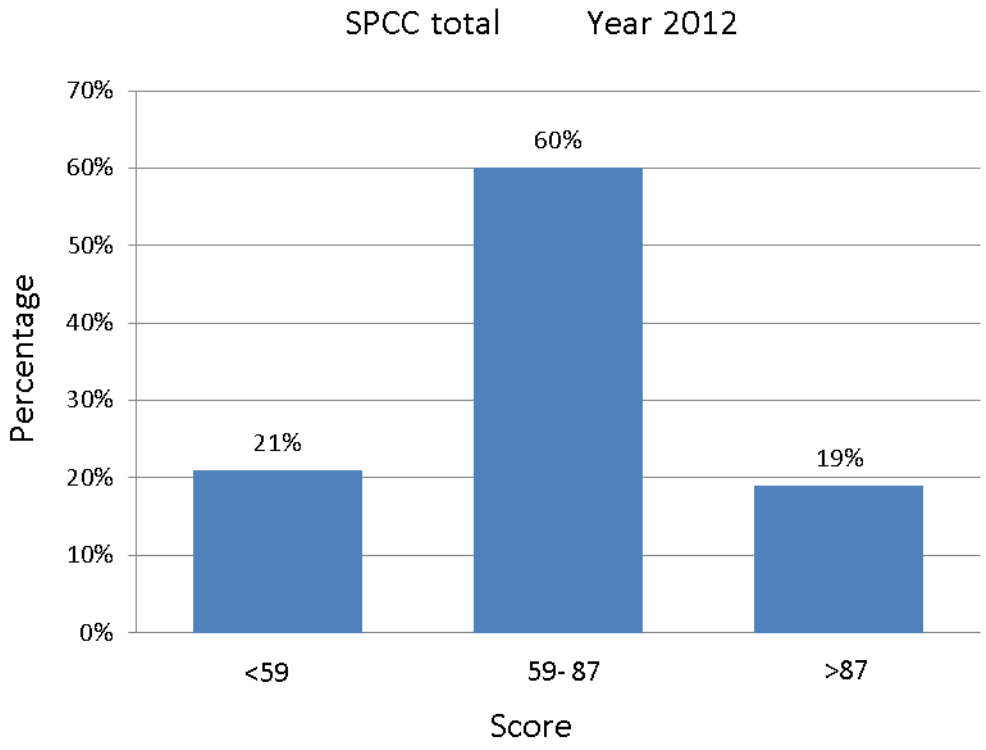


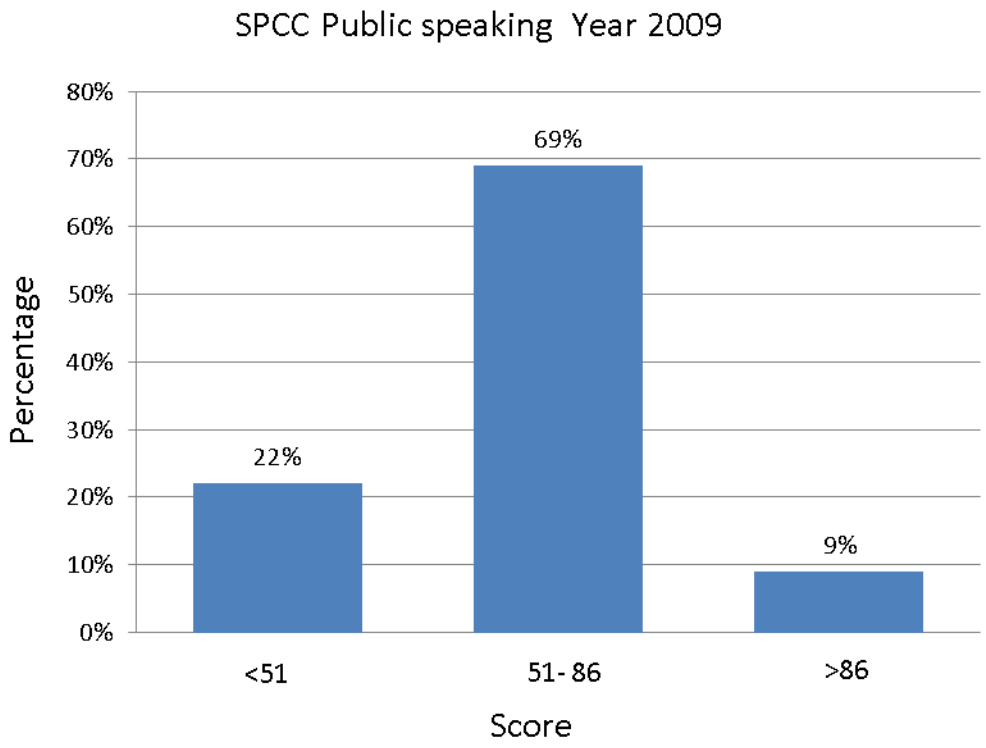
4.1.4. SELF-PERCEIVED COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

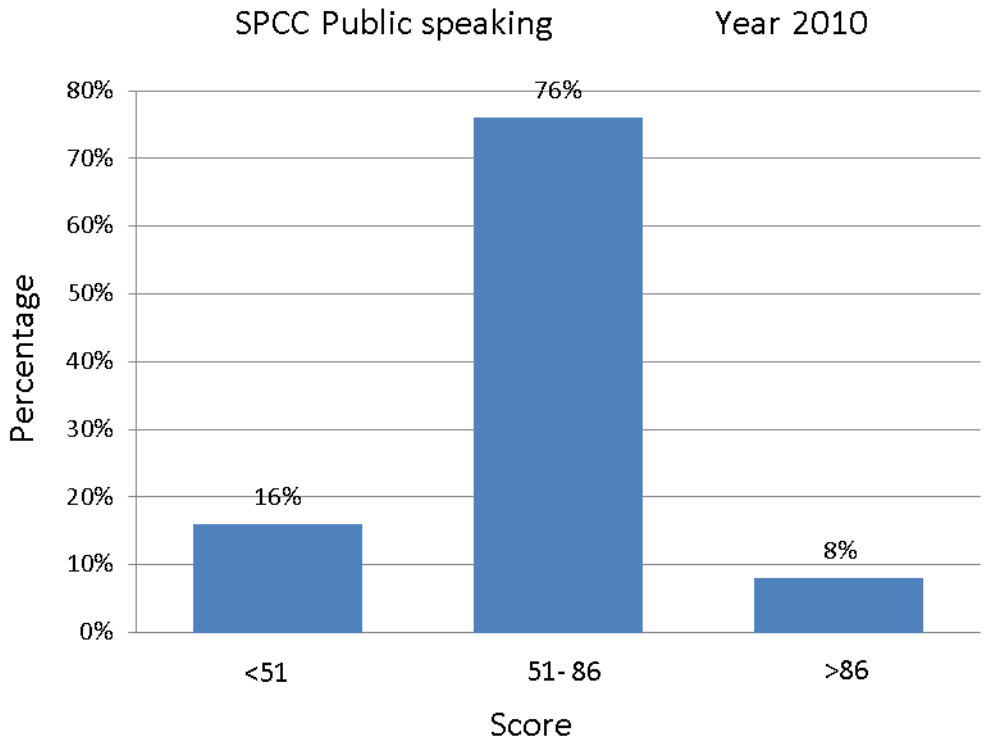


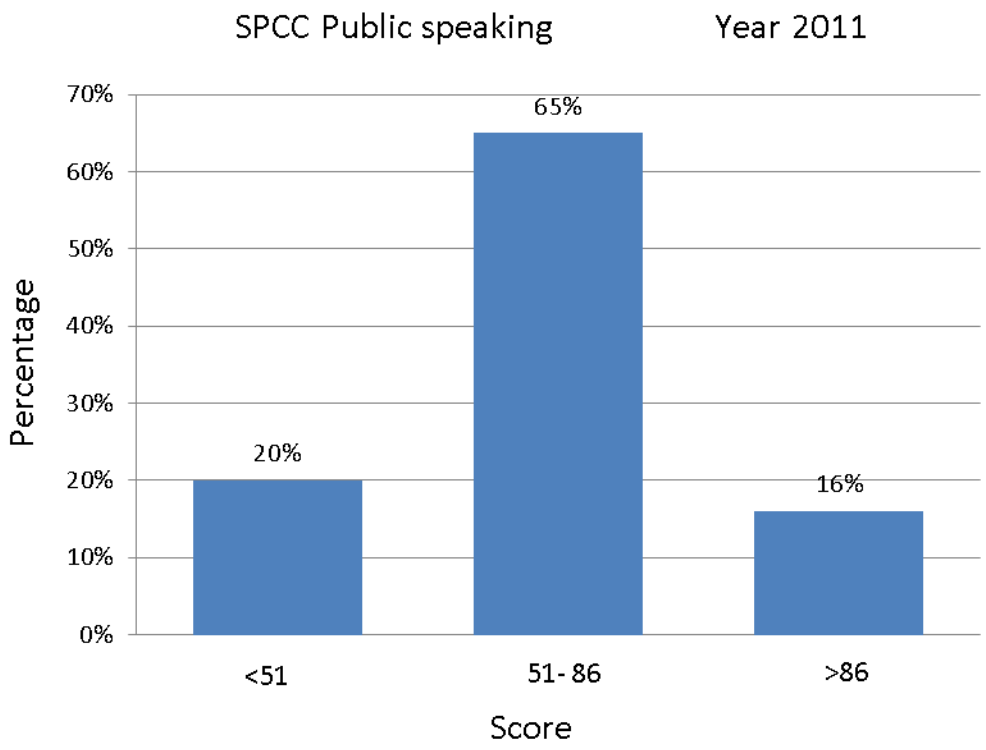


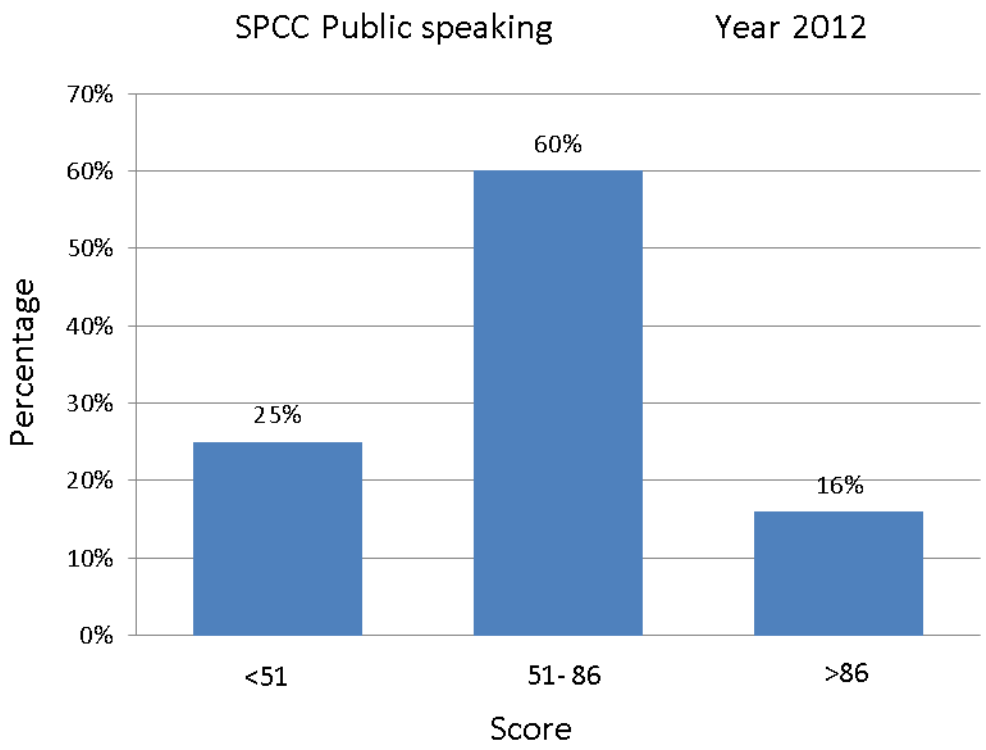


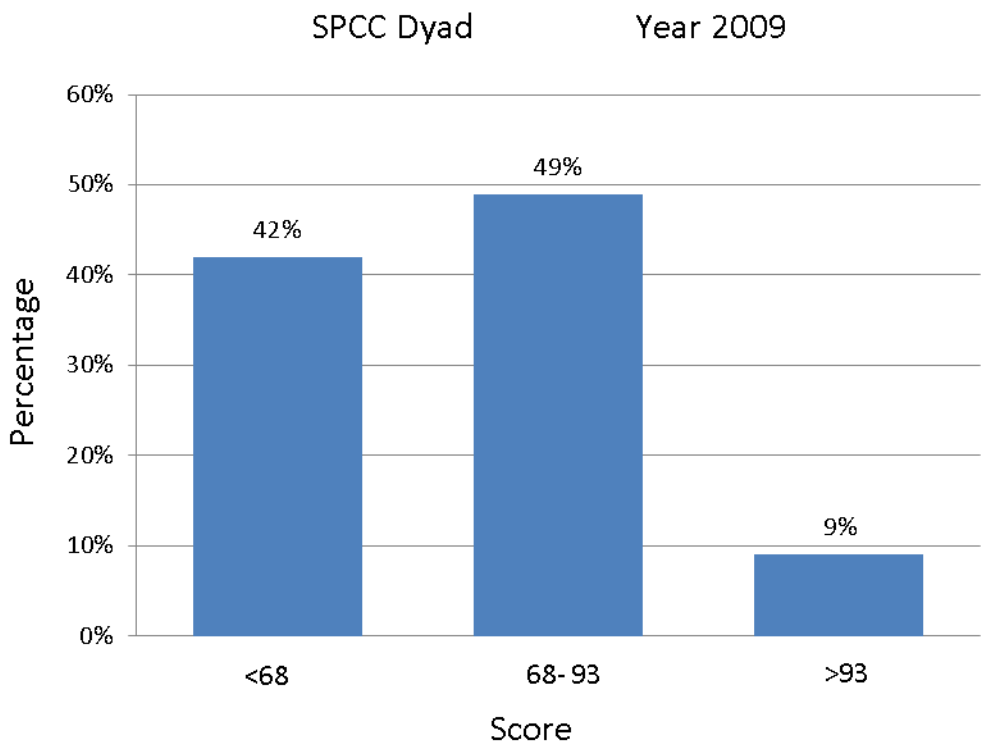


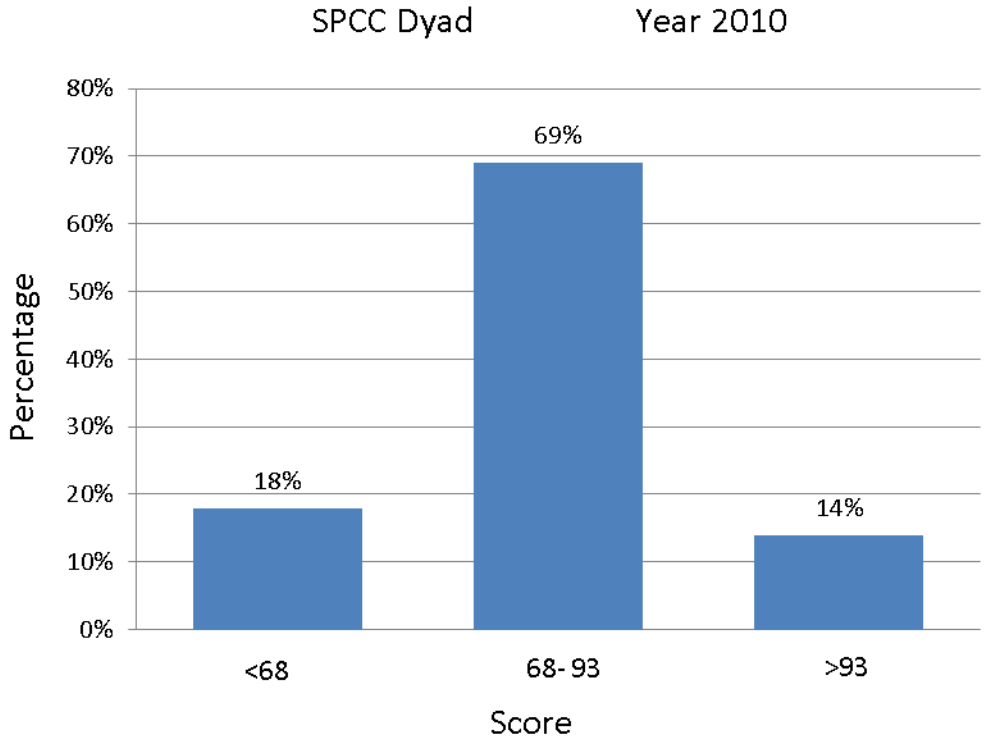


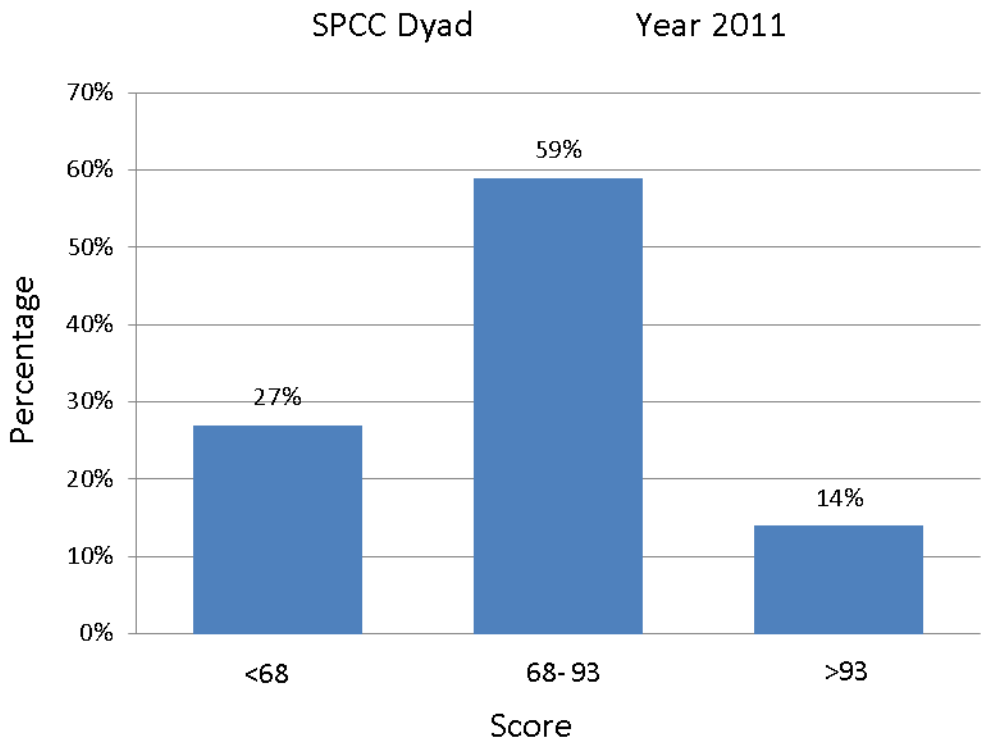


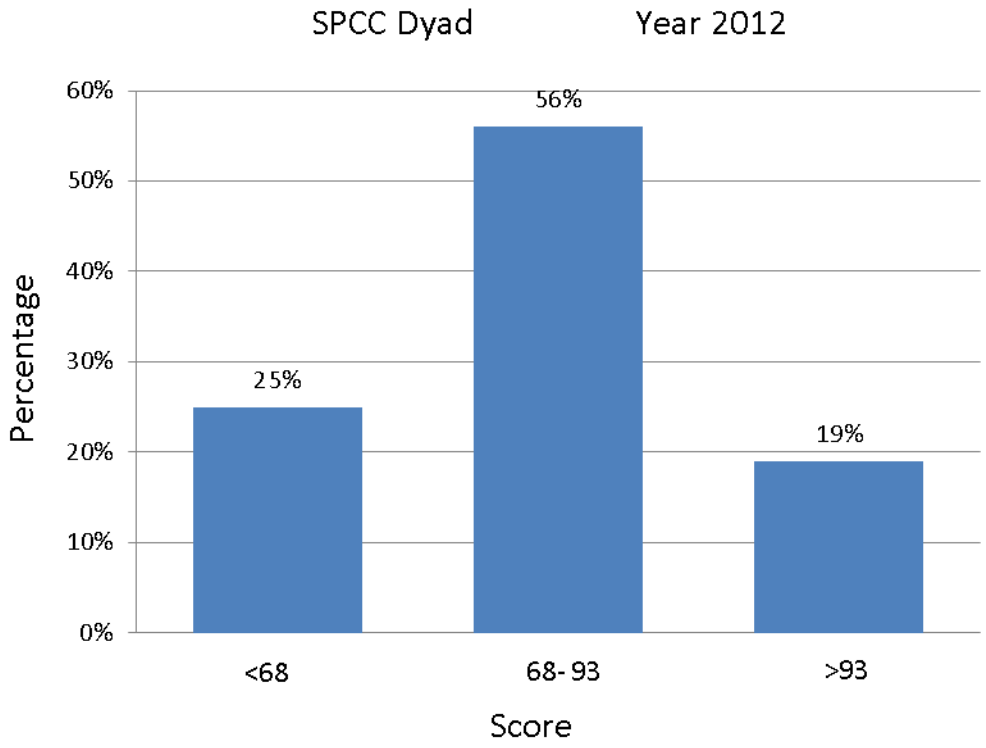


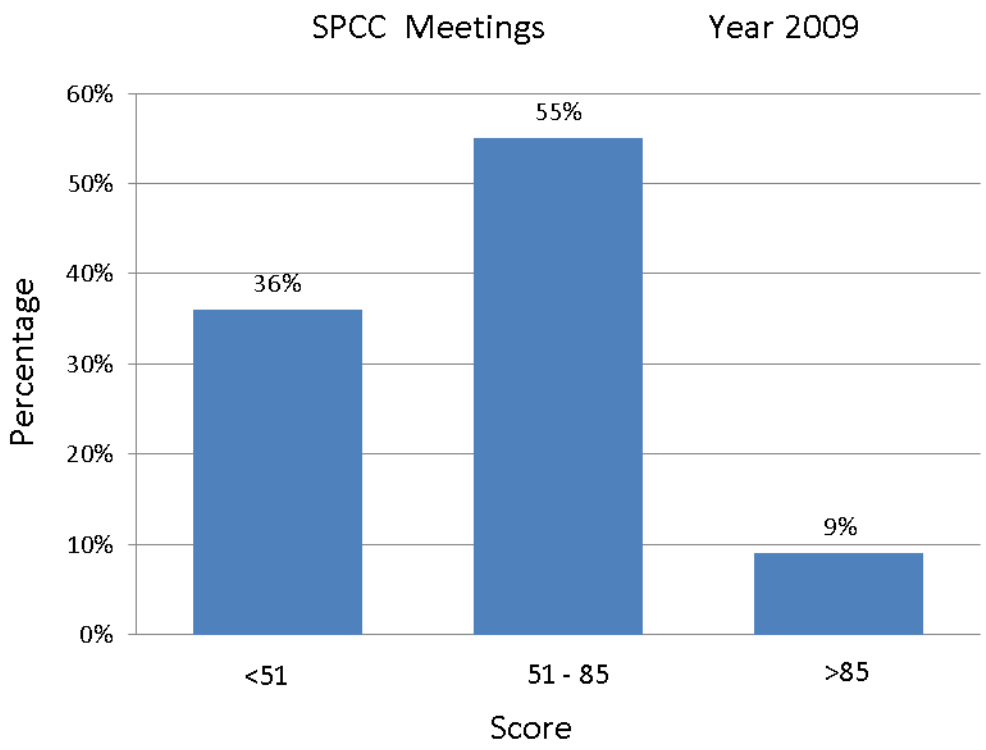


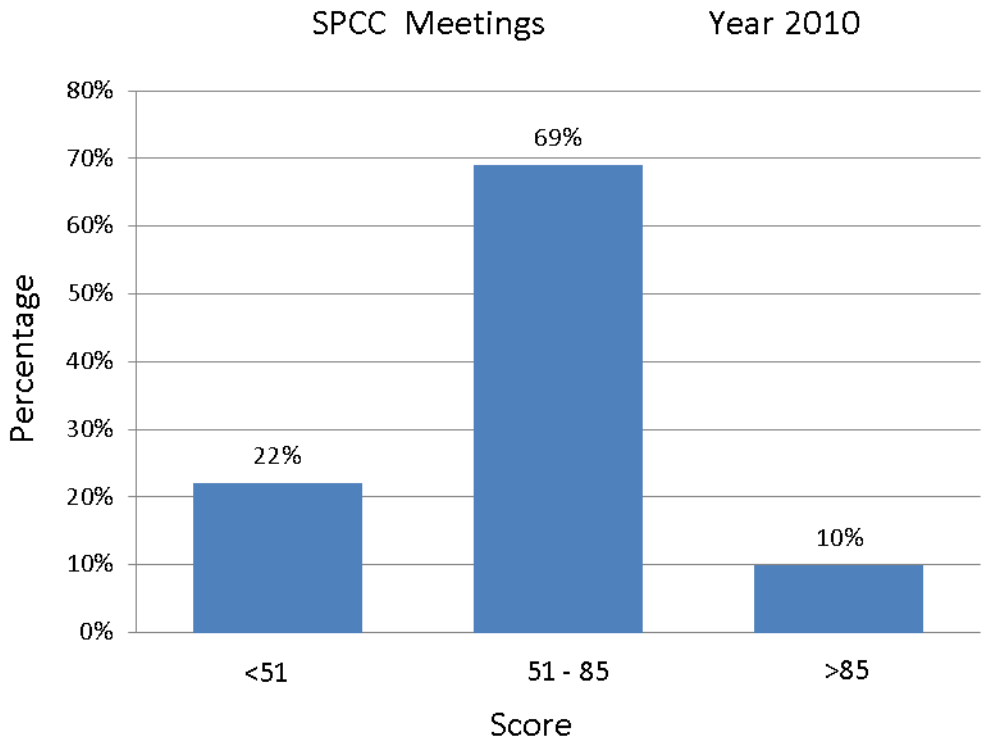


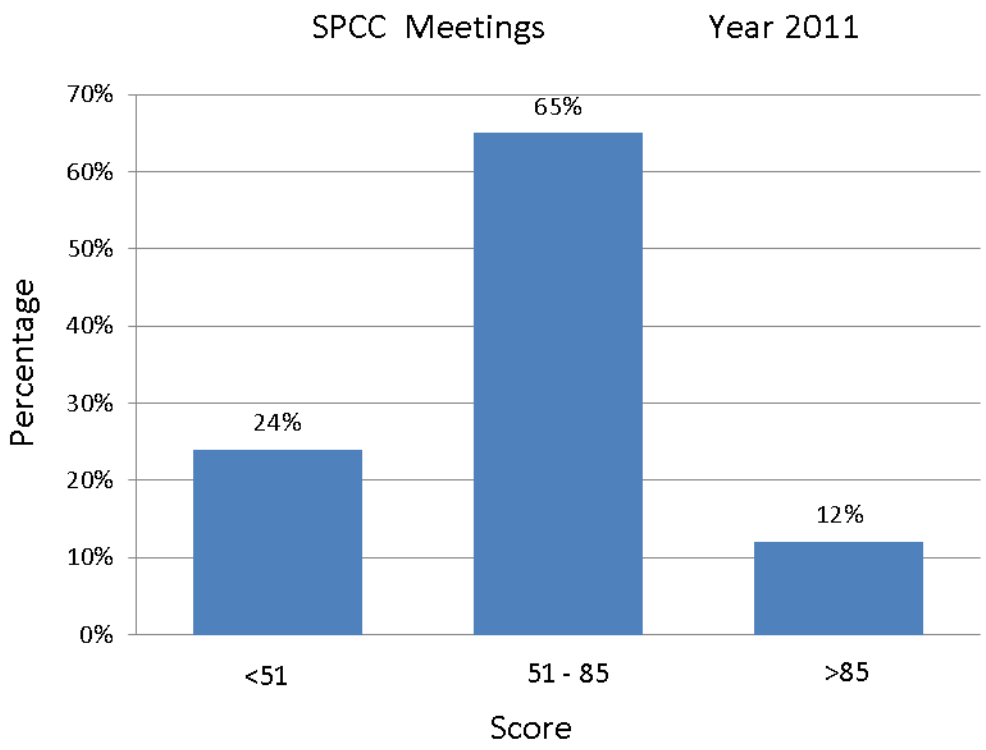


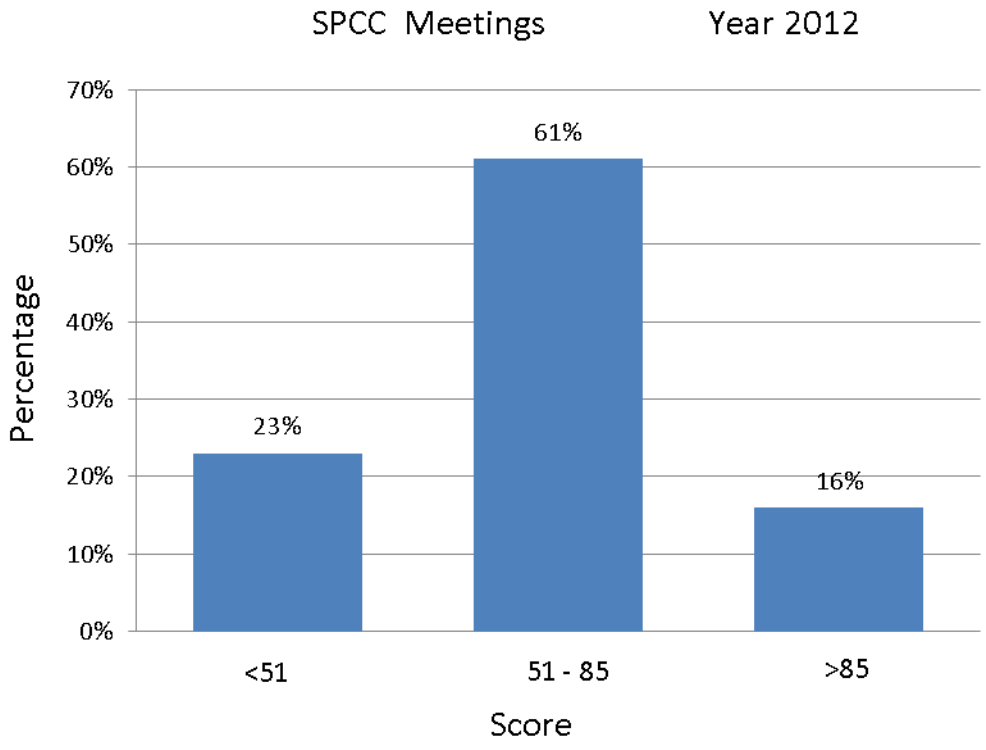


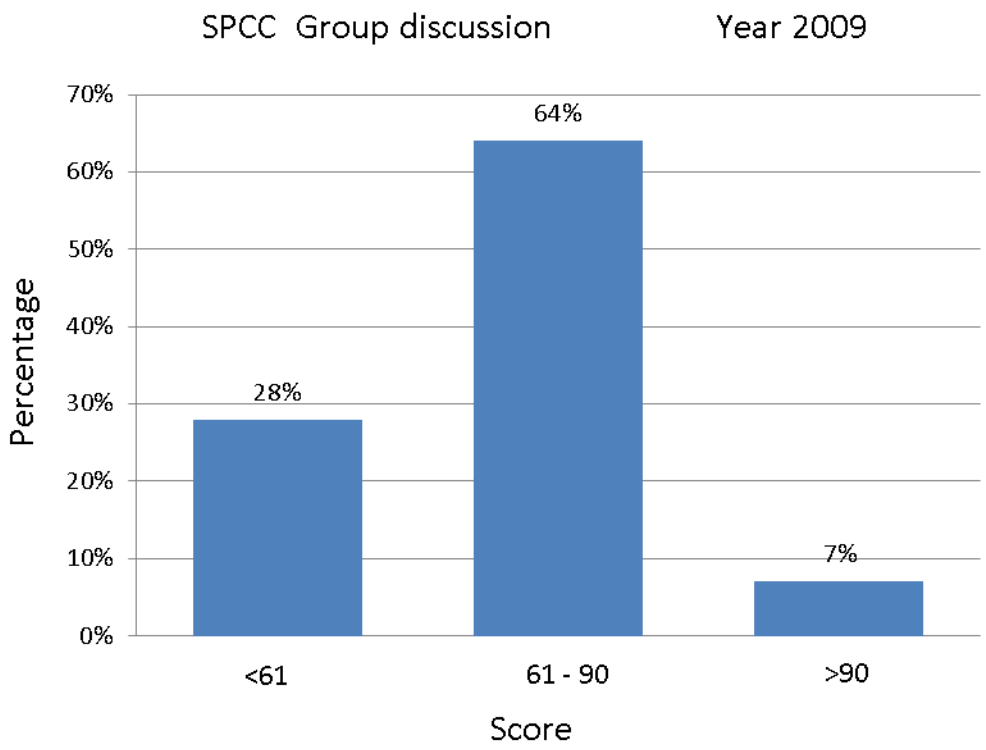


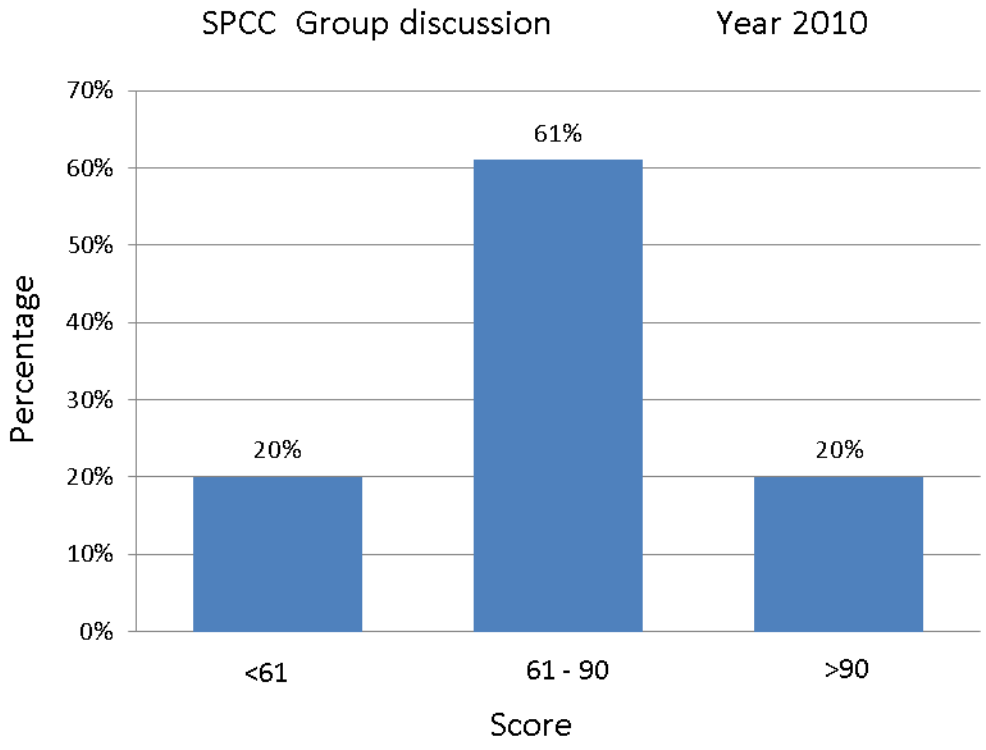


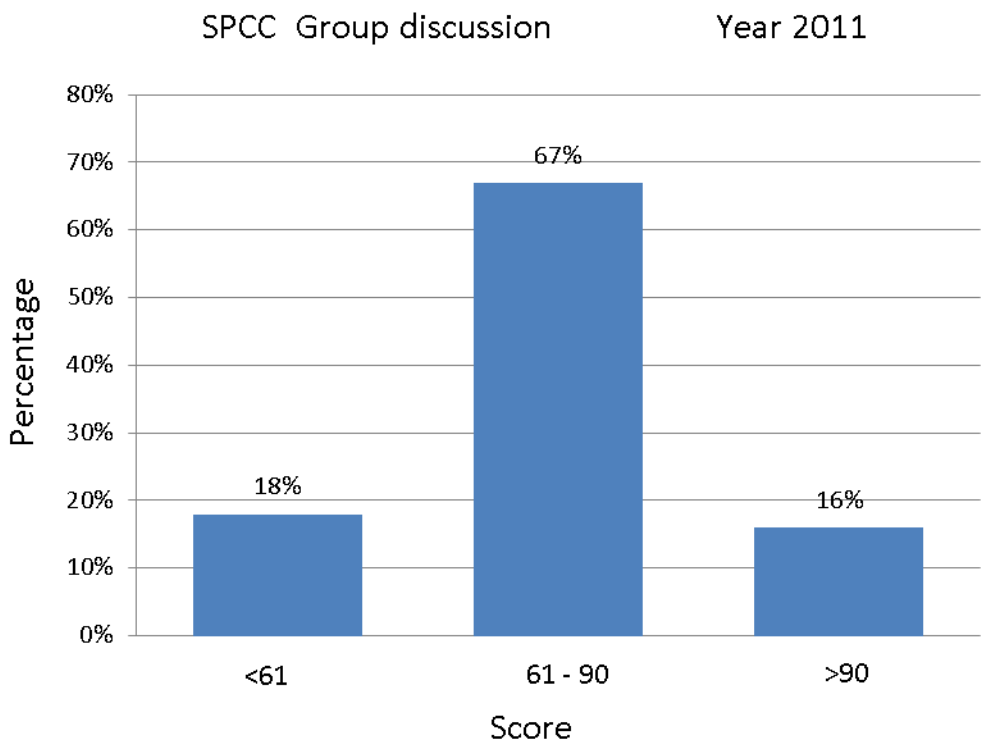


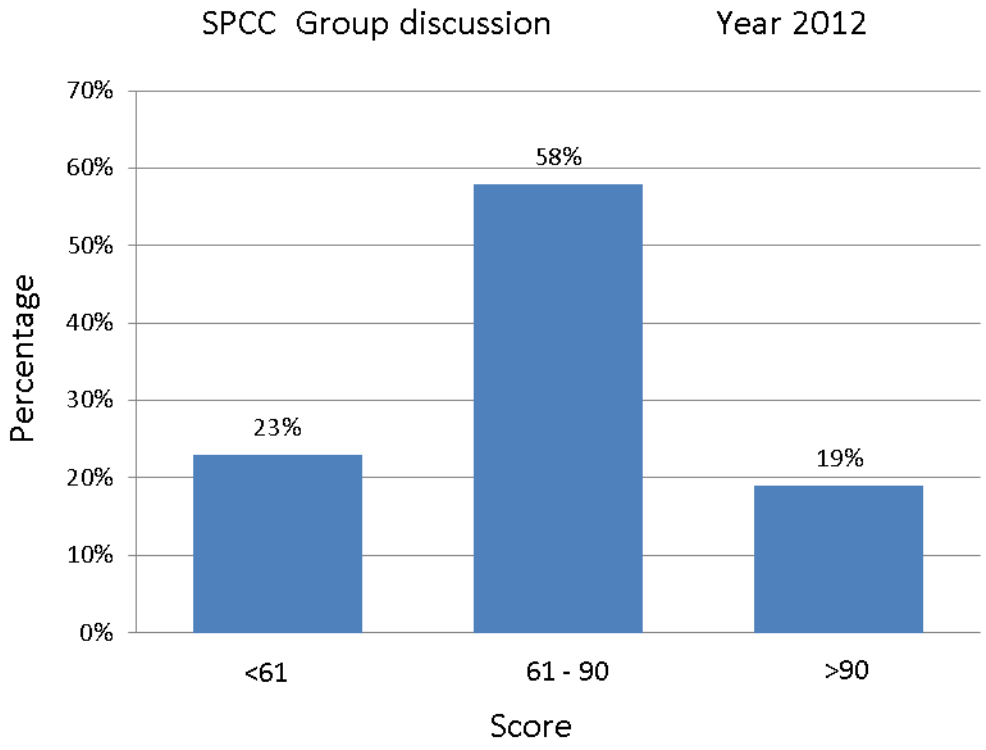


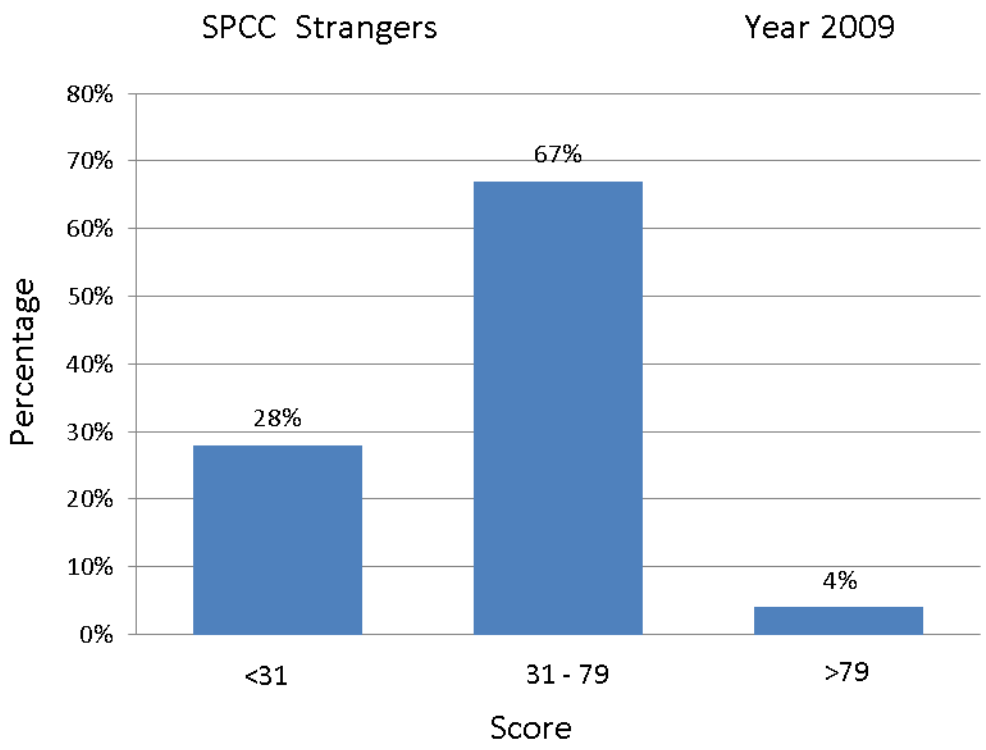


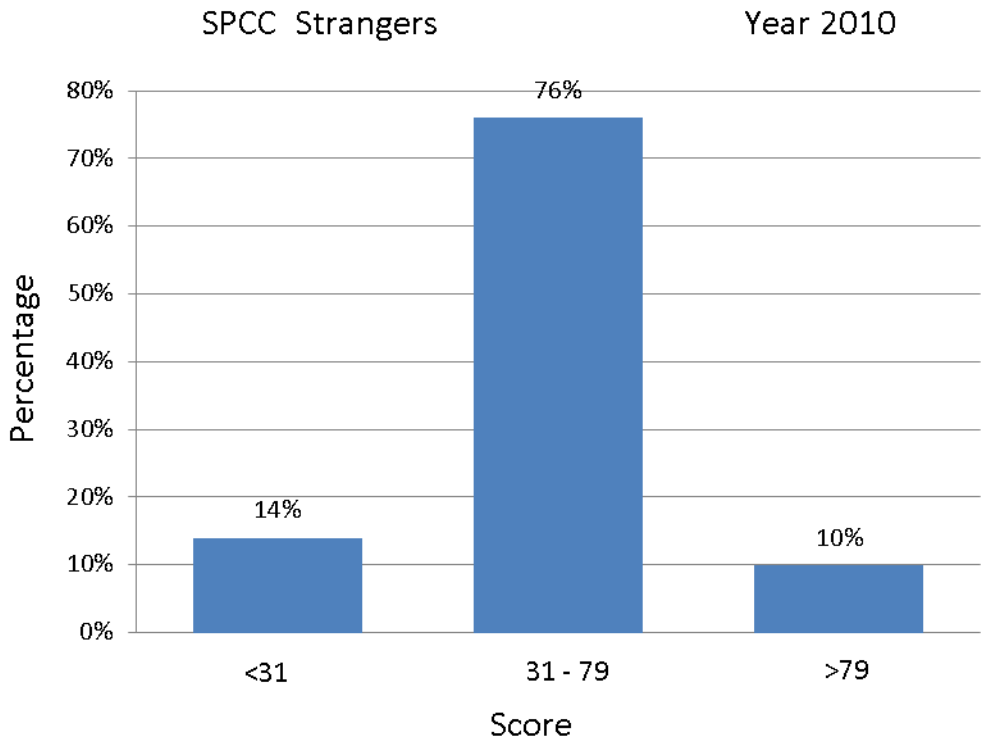


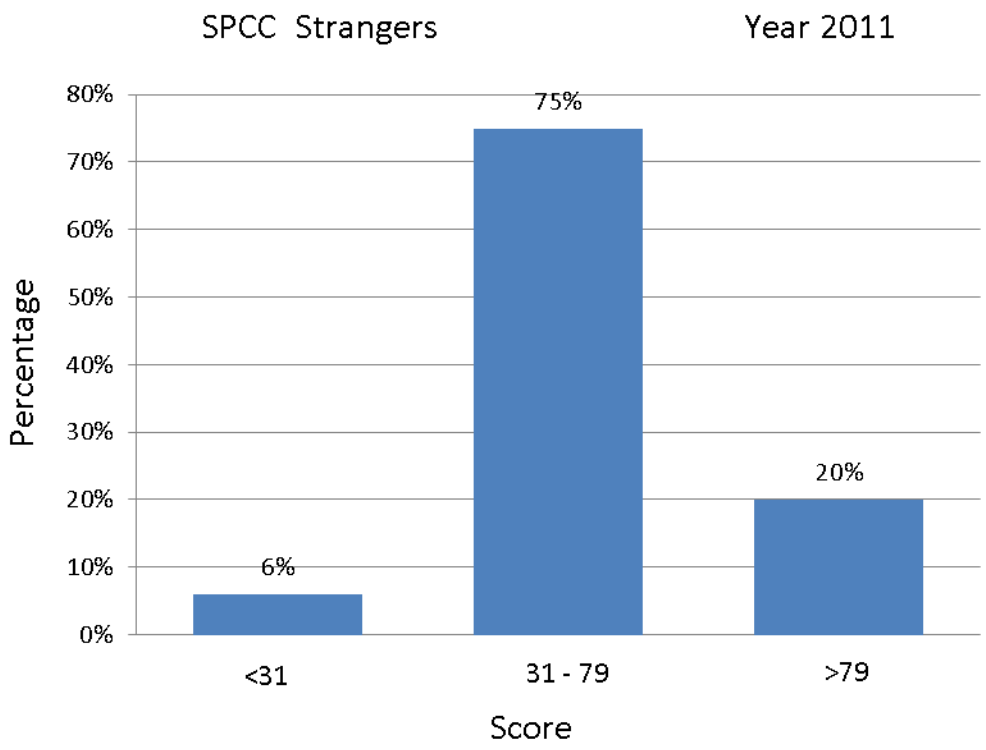


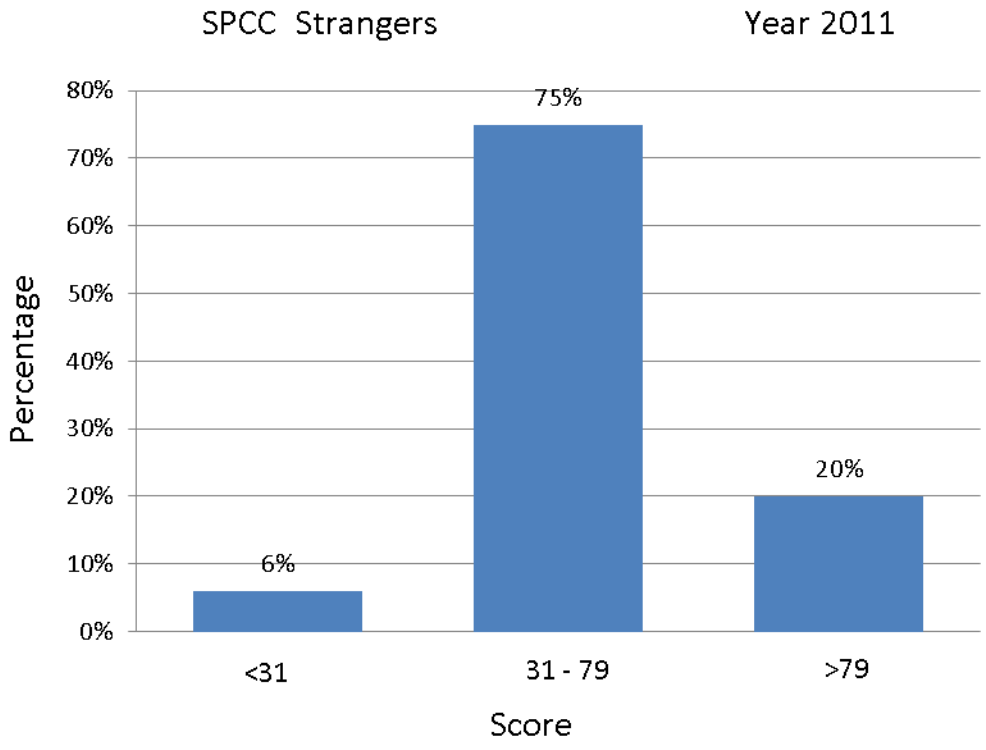


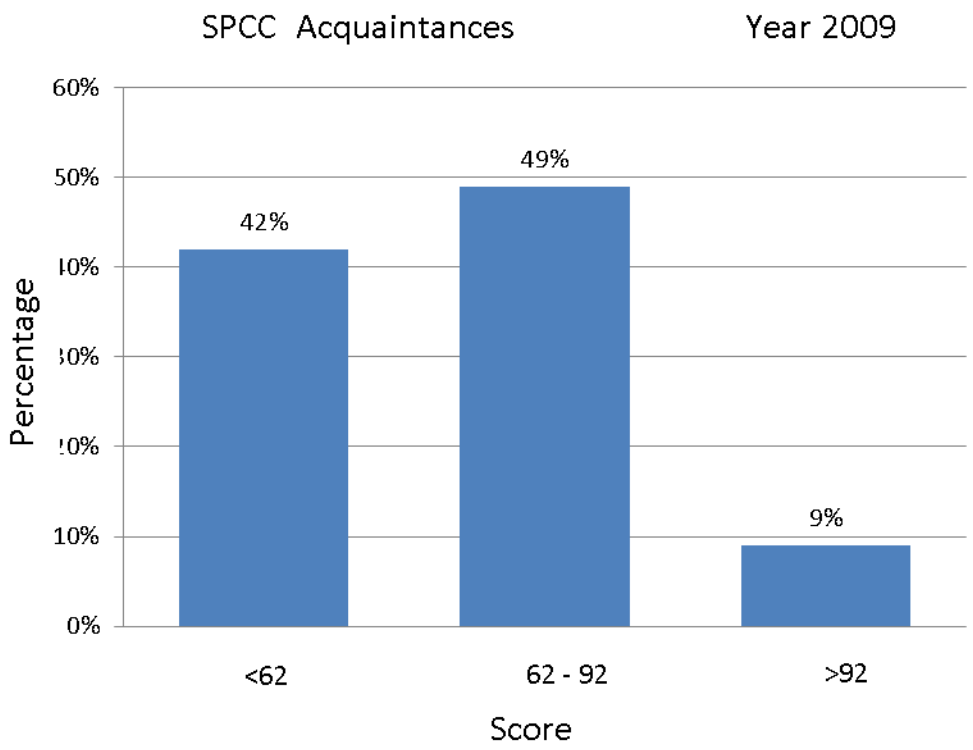


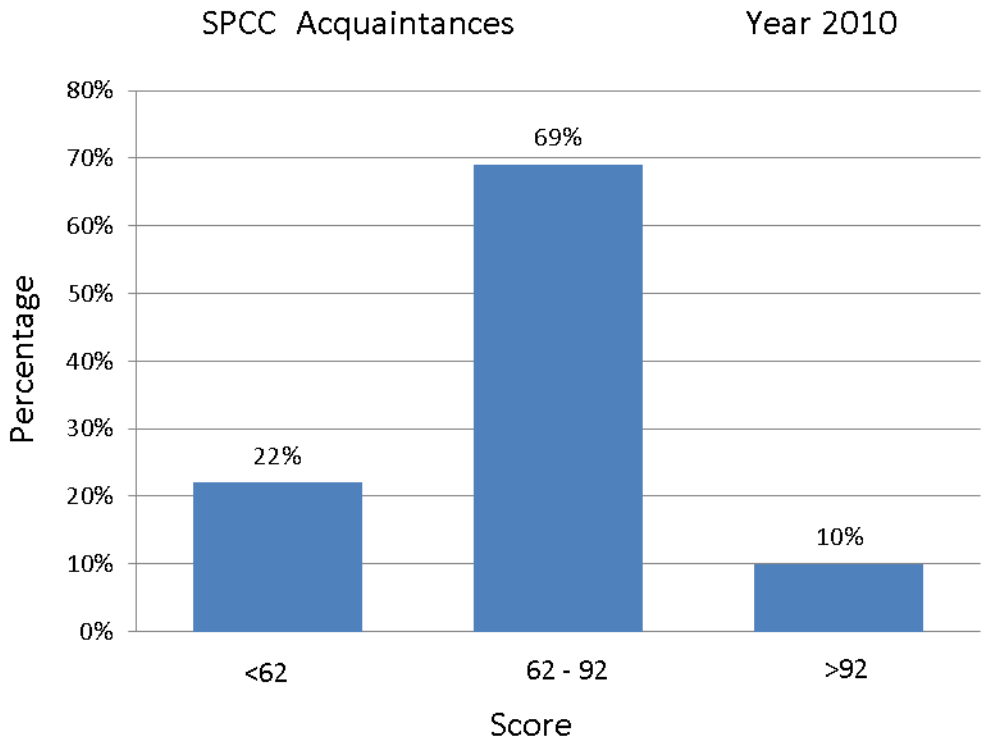


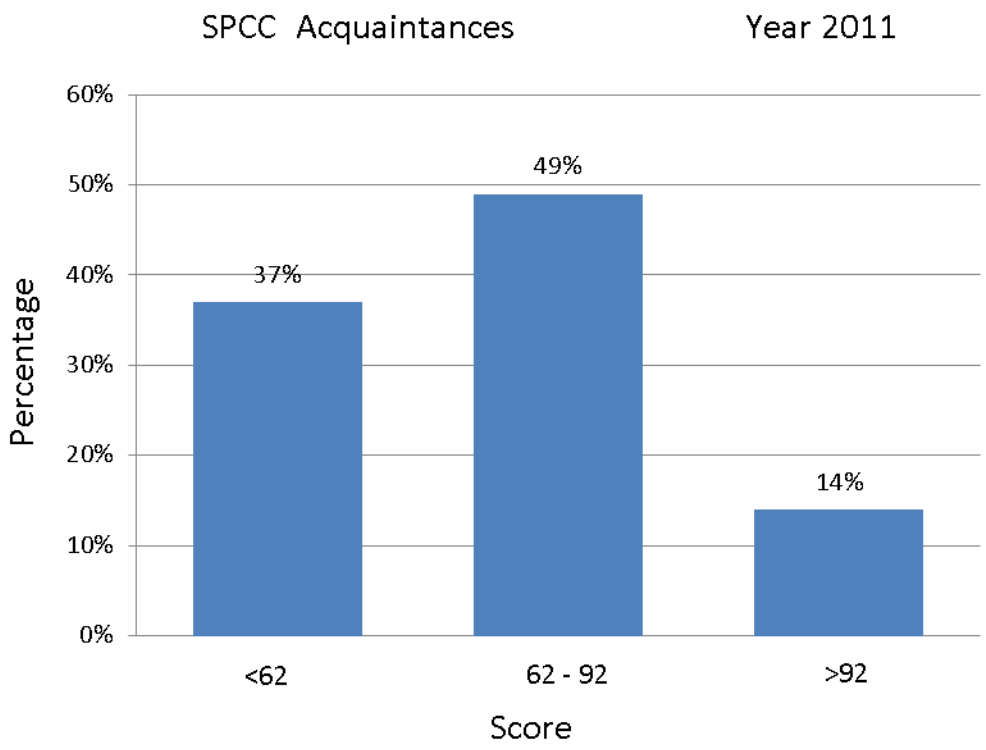


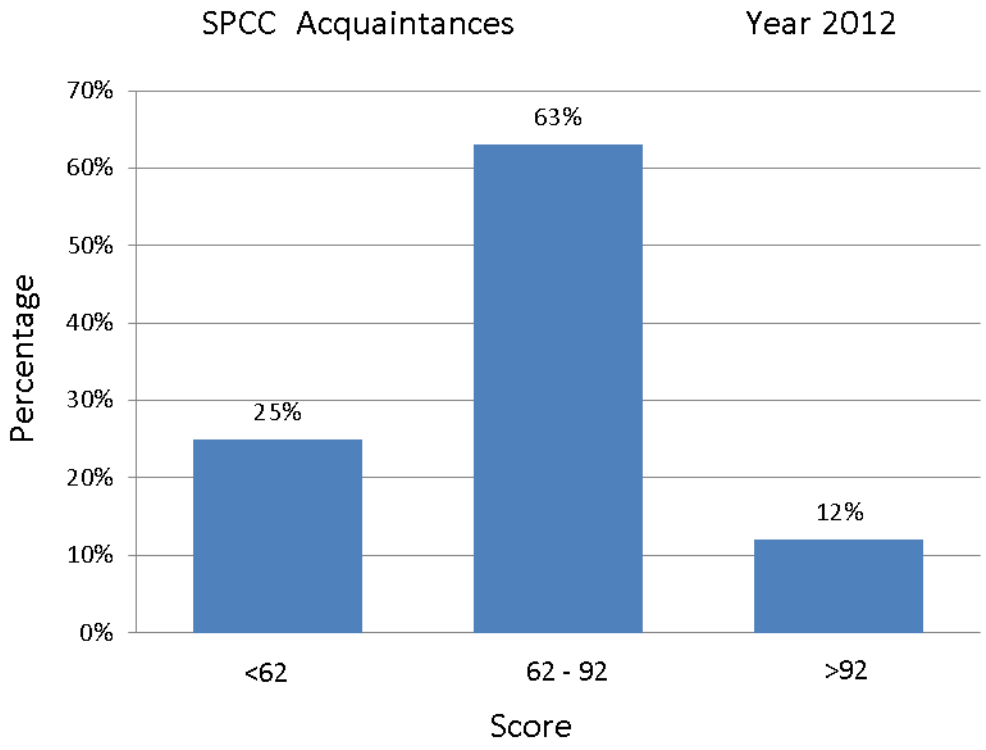












ADDENDUM 4.2

SUMMARY FOR THE SCALES AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

NIS-S

Table 1: Summary of scale: NIS-S

Summary for scale: Mean=94.4914 Std.Dv.=10.0892 Valid N:232 (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.s
Cronbach alpha: .803682 Standardized alpha: .807018
Average inter-item corr.: .144230

variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
NIS-S1	90.9741	97.9562	9.89728	0.13345	0.80629
NIS-S2	92.0000	94.8965	9.74148	0.29951	0.79880
NIS-S3(reversed)	90.3577	93.7728	9.68364	0.38221	0.79507
NIS-S4(reversed)	90.6896	94.6364	9.72812	0.28322	0.79978
NIS-S5(reversed)	90.7758	92.5704	9.62135	0.44989	0.79198
NIS-S6	90.7155	93.2897	9.65866	0.43665	0.79290
NIS-S7(reversed)	90.7112	99.2829	9.96408	0.07949	0.80762
NIS-S8(reversed)	90.5517	91.3593	9.55821	0.46180	0.79083
NIS-S9(reversed)	90.5000	94.2758	9.70957	0.42919	0.79386
NIS-S10	91.1810	95.3034	9.76234	0.25431	0.80114
NIS-S11(reversed)	90.3103	94.1536	9.70328	0.36046	0.79604
NIS-S12	90.9224	93.3129	9.65986	0.35377	0.79626
NIS-S13	91.0560	95.8804	9.79185	0.27739	0.79965
NIS-S14	91.2888	91.9640	9.58978	0.36680	0.79571
NIS-S15(reversed)	90.2801	95.3396	9.76420	0.34956	0.79685
NIS-S16	91.5172	94.3531	9.71355	0.30375	0.79872
NIS-S17	90.7758	92.2945	9.60700	0.41582	0.79318
NIS-S18(reversed)	90.2370	94.9222	9.74280	0.39528	0.79527
NIS-S19	91.0172	93.2152	9.65480	0.39865	0.79422
NIS-S20(reversed)	90.4741	96.8010	9.83875	0.20203	0.80311
NIS-S21	92.0043	95.9612	9.79597	0.23447	0.80186
NIS-S22	90.7629	91.3187	9.55608	0.46792	0.79055
NIS-S23(reversed)	90.9138	98.0960	9.90434	0.11006	0.80812
NIS-S24(reversed)	90.5258	93.6631	9.67797	0.42642	0.79348
NIS-S25	90.4267	94.2532	9.70841	0.40365	0.79457
NIS-S26(reversed)	91.3146	92.6380	9.62486	0.38845	0.79451

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics NIS-S

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	NIS-S Mean	NIS-S Std.Dev.	NIS-S Std.Err	NIS-S -95.00%	NIS-S +95.00%
Total		232	94.491	10.0892	0.66238	93.186	95.796
year	2009	68	94.029	10.1186	1.22706	91.580	96.478
year	2010	56	94.196	10.2272	1.36667	91.457	96.935
year	2011	51	94.333	9.5345	1.33509	91.651	97.015
year	2012	57	95.473	10.5899	1.40267	92.663	98.283

PRCA -24

Table 3: Summary of scale: Total PRCA

variable	Summary for scale: Mean=70.6309 Std.Dv.=15.7017 Valid N:233 (PC Cronbach alpha: .864967 Standardized alpha: .864972 Average inter-item corr.: .620905				
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
PRCA Group discussion	54.0600	148.176	12.1727	0.67455	0.84347
PRCA Meetings	52.1888	128.299	11.3269	0.81468	0.78372
PRCA Interpersonal	54.8454	155.040	12.4515	0.69343	0.83724
PRCA Public Speaking	50.7982	145.688	12.0701	0.68327	0.84027

Table 4: Descriptive statistics: Total PRCA

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (PCRA corrected in resultate.stw)					
	Level of Factor	N	PRCA total Mean	PRCA total Std.Dev.	PRCA total Std.Err	PRCA total -95.00%
Total		233	70.630	15.701	1.0286	68.60
year	2009	69	70.492	15.819	1.9044	66.69
year	2010	56	73.107	14.696	1.9639	69.17
year	2011	51	68.588	14.436	2.0214	64.52
year	2012	57	70.193	17.582	2.3289	65.52

Table 5: Descriptive statistics: Public speaking PRCA

	Descriptive Statistics (PCRA corrected in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	PRCA Public Speaking Mean	PRCA Public Speaking Std.Dev.	PRCA Public Speaking Std.Err	PRCA Public Speaking -95.00%	PRCA Public Speaking +95.00%
Total		233	19.8326	4.71720	0.30903	19.2237	20.4414
year	2009	69	19.5797	4.75396	0.57231	18.4377	20.7217
year	2010	56	20.5714	4.36038	0.58268	19.4037	21.7391
year	2011	51	19.9803	4.88053	0.68341	18.6077	21.3530

Table 6: Descriptive statistics: interpersonal PRCA

	Descriptive Statistics (PCRA corrected in resultate.stw)						
Effect	Level of Factor	N	PRCA Interpersonal Mean	PRCA Interpersonal Std.Dev.	PRCA Interpersonal Std.Err	PRCA Interpersonal -95.00%	PRCA Interpersonal +95.00%
Total		233	15.7854	4.21985	0.27645	15.240	16.330
year	2009	69	16.2608	4.17503	0.50261	15.257	17.263
year	2010	56	16.3928	4.21546	0.56331	15.263	17.521
year	2011	51	15.0392	3.86243	0.54085	13.952	16.125
year	2012	57	15.2807	4.51882	0.59853	14.081	16.479

WTC

Table 7: Summary of scale: WTC

variable	Summary for scale: Mean=189.148 Std.Dv.=50.9120 \ Cronbach alpha: .813648 Standardized alpha: .8201 Average inter-item corr.: .613175				
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
WTC stranger	144.834	1041.12	32.2664	0.70375	0.71510
WTC acquaintance	127.289	1062.97	32.6033	0.77615	0.61986
WTC friend	106.173	1657.47	40.7120	0.57899	0.84243

Table 8: Descriptive statistics: Total WTC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	WTC total Mean	WTC total Std.Dev.	WTC total Std.Err	WTC total -95.00%	WTC total +95.00%
Total		229	63.0494	16.9706	1.1214	60.839	65.259
year	2009	69	61.8200	17.5701	2.1152	57.599	66.040
year	2010	52	63.0304	16.5506	2.2951	58.422	67.638
year	2011	51	62.7173	16.6795	2.3356	58.026	67.408
year	2012	57	64.8523	17.1635	2.2733	60.298	69.406

Table 9: Descriptive statistics: Public speaking WTC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	WTC Public Speaking Mean	WTC Public Speaking Std.Dev.	WTC Public Speaking Std.Err	WTC Public Speaking -95.00%	WTC Public Speaking +95.00%
Total		229	58.6346	22.0222	1.4552	55.767	61.502
year	2009	69	58.3719	21.6569	2.6071	53.169	63.574
year	2010	52	59.4871	20.4271	2.8327	53.80	65.174
year	2011	51	56.4705	24.3028	3.4030	49.635	63.305
year	2012	57	60.1111	22.1455	2.9332	54.235	65.987

Table 10: Descriptive statistics: interpersonal WTC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	WTC Interpersonal Mean	WTC Interpersonal Std.Dev.	WTC Interpersonal Std.Err	WTC Interpersonal -95.00%	WTC Interpersonal +95.00%
Total		229	67.577	18.5176	1.2236	65.167	69.989
year	2009	69	65.043	18.7712	2.2597	60.534	69.552
year	2010	52	67.775	19.0289	2.6388	62.478	73.073
year	2011	51	68.594	18.5063	2.5914	63.390	73.799
year	2012	57	69.555	17.8832	2.3687	64.810	74.300

Table 11: Descriptive statistics: Stranger WTC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	WTC stranger Mean	WTC stranger Std.Dev.	WTC stranger Std.Err	WTC stranger -95.00%	WTC stranger +95.00%
Total		229	44.3144	22.6766	1.4985	41.362	47.267
year	2009	69	39.9239	22.6091	2.7218	34.493	45.355
year	2010	52	43.9471	21.0923	2.9249	38.075	49.819
year	2011	51	47.0588	22.6616	3.1732	40.685	53.432
year	2012	57	47.5087	23.8354	3.1570	41.184	53.833

Table 12: Descriptive statistics: Acquaintance WTC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet5 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	WTC acquaintance Mean	WTC acquaintance Std.Dev.	WTC acquaintance Std.Err	WTC acquaintance -95.00%	WTC acquaintance +95.00%
Total		229	61.859	21.1964	1.4007	59.099	64.619
year	2009	69	64.231	22.1452	2.6659	58.912	69.551
year	2010	52	60.552	21.0485	2.9189	54.693	66.412
year	2011	51	59.210	20.3068	2.8435	53.499	64.922
year	2012	57	62.548	21.1350	2.7994	56.940	68.156

SPCC

Table: 13: Summary of scale: total SPCC

variable	Summary for scale: Mean=207.494 Std.Dv.=42.3942 Valid N:226 (Spreads Cronbach alpha: .738011 Standardized alpha: .757765 Average inter-item corr.: .518607				
	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
SPCC stranger	155.133	740.27	27.2079	0.54026	0.72090
SPCC Acquaintance	138.488	769.92	27.7474	0.70459	0.46998
SPCC friend	121.366	1188.07	34.4685	0.52428	0.72823

Table 14: Descriptive statistics: Total SPCC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet16 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	SPCC total Mean	SPCC total Std.Dev.	SPCC total Std.Err	SPCC total -95.00%	SPCC total +95.00%
Total		226	69.1648	14.1313	0.9400	67.312	71.017
year	2009	67	65.3159	15.3441	1.8745	61.573	69.058
year	2010	51	70.5343	13.2571	1.8563	66.805	74.263
year	2011	51	70.8643	12.8046	1.7930	67.263	74.465
year	2012	57	70.9429	14.0096	1.8556	67.225	74.660

Table 15: Descriptive statistics: Public speaking SPCC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet16 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	SPCC public Mean	SPCC public Std.Dev.	SPCC public Std.Err	SPCC public -95.00%	SPCC public +95.00%
Total		226	65.066	17.6044	1.1710	62.758	67.374
year	2009	67	62.005	19.4769	2.3794	57.254	66.755
year	2010	51	65.849	17.8866	2.5046	60.819	70.880
year	2011	51	66.856	14.7764	2.0691	62.700	71.012
year	2012	57	66.362	17.3522	2.2983	61.758	70.966

Table 16: Descriptive statistics Dyad SPCC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet16 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	SPCC dyad Mean	SPCC dyad Std.Dev.	SPCC dyad Std.Err	SPCC dyad -95.00%	SPCC dyad +95.00%
Total		226	75.620	14.7093	0.9784	73.692	77.549
year	2009	67	70.094	15.7562	1.9249	66.251	73.937
year	2010	51	76.856	13.0336	1.8250	73.190	80.522
year	2011	51	78.875	13.5377	1.8956	75.068	82.683
year	2012	57	78.099	14.4081	1.9084	74.276	81.922

Table 17: Descriptive statistics: stranger SPCC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet16 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	SPCC stranger Mean	SPCC stranger Std.Dev.	SPCC stranger Std.Err	SPCC stranger -95.00%	SPCC stranger +95.00%
Total		226	52.3606	20.9153	1.3912	49.619	55.102
year	2009	67	44.9440	22.5813	2.7587	39.436	50.452
year	2010	51	53.5931	18.2268	2.5522	48.467	58.719
year	2011	51	57.3480	19.5613	2.7391	51.846	62.849
year	2012	57	55.5131	20.4551	2.7093	50.086	60.940

Table 18: Descriptive statistics: Acquaintance SPCC

Effect	Descriptive Statistics (Spreadsheet16 in resultate.stw)						
	Level of Factor	N	SPCC Acquaintance Mean	SPCC Acquaintance Std.Dev.	SPCC Acquaintance Std.Err	SPCC Acquaintance -95.00%	SPCC Acquaintance +95.00%
Total		226	69.005	17.9272	1.1925(	66.655(	71.355
year	2009	67	65.328	20.2453	2.4733	60.390	70.266(
year	2010	51	70.171(	17.3187	2.4251	65.300(	75.042
year	2011	51	70.451(	16.4105	2.2979	65.835	75.066
year	2012	57	70.991	16.6320	2.2029	66.578	75.404

ADDENDUM 4.3: CORRELATIONS

Correlations between PRCA, WTC and SPCC

	correlation data in results.stw						
	variable 1	variable 2	Pearson	Pearson p-val	Spearman	Spearman p-val	# cases
1	WTC Public Speaking	PRCA Group discussion	-0.46	<0.01	-0.46	<0.01	229
2	WTC Public Speaking	PRCA Meetings	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	229
3	WTC Public Speaking	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.38	<0.01	-0.38	<0.01	229
4	WTC Public Speaking	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.51	<0.01	-0.51	<0.01	229
5	WTC Public Speaking	PRCA total	-0.56	<0.01	-0.56	<0.01	229
6	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC stranger	0.55	<0.01	0.55	<0.01	226
7	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC Acquaintance	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
8	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC friend	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	226
9	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC public	0.69	<0.01	0.69	<0.01	226
10	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC meeting	0.64	<0.01	0.64	<0.01	226
11	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC group	0.53	<0.01	0.53	<0.01	226
12	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC dyad	0.37	<0.01	0.37	<0.01	226
13	WTC Public Speaking	SPCC total	0.66	<0.01	0.66	<0.01	226
14	WTC Interpersonal	PRCA Group discussion	-0.42	<0.01	-0.42	<0.01	229
15	WTC Interpersonal	PRCA Meetings	-0.39	<0.01	-0.39	<0.01	229
16	WTC Interpersonal	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.43	<0.01	-0.43	<0.01	229
17	WTC Interpersonal	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.39	<0.01	-0.39	<0.01	229
18	WTC Interpersonal	PRCA total	-0.48	<0.01	-0.48	<0.01	229
19	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC stranger	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
20	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC Acquaintance	0.40	<0.01	0.40	<0.01	226
21	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC friend	0.36	<0.01	0.36	<0.01	226
22	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC public	0.40	<0.01	0.40	<0.01	226
23	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC meeting	0.44	<0.01	0.44	<0.01	226
24	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC group	0.46	<0.01	0.46	<0.01	226
25	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC dyad	0.66	<0.01	0.66	<0.01	226
26	WTC Interpersonal	SPCC total	0.56	<0.01	0.56	<0.01	226
27	WTC Meetings	PRCA Group discussion	-0.50	<0.01	-0.50	<0.01	229
28	WTC Meetings	PRCA Meetings	-0.59	<0.01	-0.59	<0.01	229

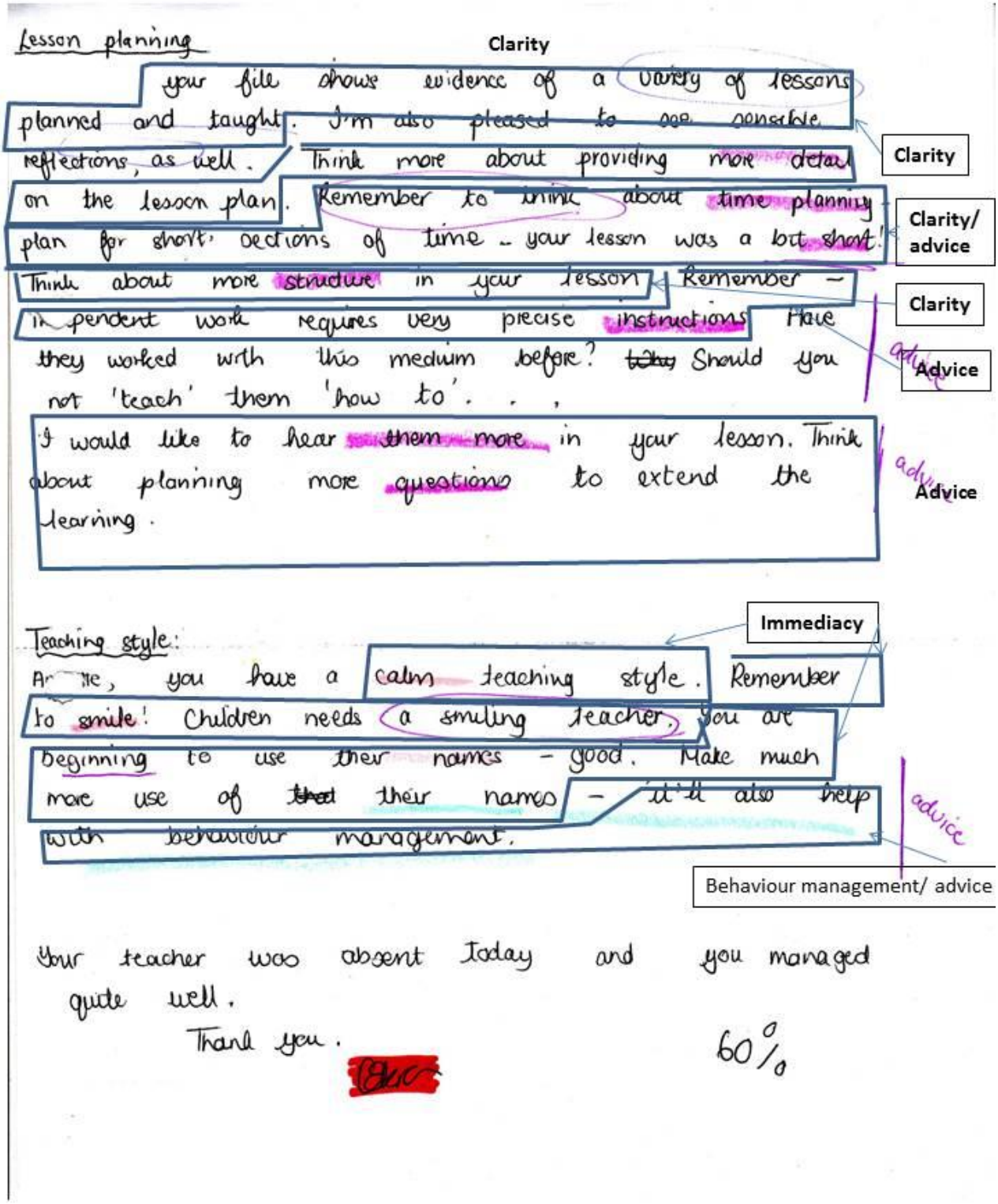
29	WTC Meetings	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	229
30	WTC Meetings	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	229
31	WTC Meetings	PRCA total	-0.63	<0.01	-0.63	<0.01	229
32	WTC Meetings	SPCC stranger	0.62	<0.01	0.62	<0.01	226
33	WTC Meetings	SPCC Acquaintance	0.65	<0.01	0.65	<0.01	226
34	WTC Meetings	SPCC friend	0.54	<0.01	0.54	<0.01	226
35	WTC Meetings	SPCC public	0.71	<0.01	0.71	<0.01	226
36	WTC Meetings	SPCC meeting	0.76	<0.01	0.76	<0.01	226
37	WTC Meetings	SPCC group	0.58	<0.01	0.58	<0.01	226
38	WTC Meetings	SPCC dyad	0.48	<0.01	0.48	<0.01	226
39	WTC Meetings	SPCC total	0.74	<0.01	0.74	<0.01	226
40	WTC Group Discussion	PRCA Group discussion	-0.47	<0.01	-0.47	<0.01	229
41	WTC Group Discussion	PRCA Meetings	-0.52	<0.01	-0.52	<0.01	229
42	WTC Group Discussion	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.44	<0.01	-0.44	<0.01	229
43	WTC Group Discussion	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.42	<0.01	-0.42	<0.01	229
44	WTC Group Discussion	PRCA total	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	229
45	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC stranger	0.65	<0.01	0.65	<0.01	226
46	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC Acquaintance	0.60	<0.01	0.60	<0.01	226
47	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC friend	0.53	<0.01	0.53	<0.01	226
48	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC public	0.60	<0.01	0.60	<0.01	226
49	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC meeting	0.67	<0.01	0.67	<0.01	226
50	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC group	0.69	<0.01	0.69	<0.01	226
51	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC dyad	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
52	WTC Group Discussion	SPCC total	0.73	<0.01	0.73	<0.01	226
53	WTC stranger	PRCA Group discussion	-0.46	<0.01	-0.46	<0.01	229
54	WTC stranger	PRCA Meetings	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	229
55	WTC stranger	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.47	<0.01	-0.47	<0.01	229
56	WTC stranger	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.52	<0.01	-0.52	<0.01	229
57	WTC stranger	PRCA total	-0.59	<0.01	-0.59	<0.01	229
58	WTC stranger	SPCC stranger	0.78	<0.01	0.78	<0.01	226
59	WTC stranger	SPCC Acquaintance	0.48	<0.01	0.48	<0.01	226
60	WTC stranger	SPCC friend	0.31	<0.01	0.31	<0.01	226
61	WTC stranger	SPCC public	0.55	<0.01	0.55	<0.01	226
62	WTC stranger	SPCC meeting	0.65	<0.01	0.65	<0.01	226

63	WTC stranger	SPCC group	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
64	WTC stranger	SPCC dyad	0.58	<0.01	0.58	<0.01	226
65	WTC stranger	SPCC total	0.68	<0.01	0.68	<0.01	226
66	WTC acquaintance	PRCA Group discussion	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	229
67	WTC acquaintance	PRCA Meetings	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	229
68	WTC acquaintance	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.45	<0.01	-0.45	<0.01	229
69	WTC acquaintance	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	229
70	WTC acquaintance	PRCA total	-0.60	<0.01	-0.60	<0.01	229
71	WTC acquaintance	SPCC stranger	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
72	WTC acquaintance	SPCC Acquaintance	0.69	<0.01	0.69	<0.01	226
73	WTC acquaintance	SPCC friend	0.47	<0.01	0.47	<0.01	226
74	WTC acquaintance	SPCC public	0.67	<0.01	0.67	<0.01	226
75	WTC acquaintance	SPCC meeting	0.66	<0.01	0.66	<0.01	226
76	WTC acquaintance	SPCC group	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	226
77	WTC acquaintance	SPCC dyad	0.52	<0.01	0.52	<0.01	226
78	WTC acquaintance	SPCC total	0.71	<0.01	0.71	<0.01	226
79	WTC friend	PRCA Group discussion	-0.44	<0.01	-0.44	<0.01	229
80	WTC friend	PRCA Meetings	-0.40	<0.01	-0.40	<0.01	229
81	WTC friend	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.37	<0.01	-0.37	<0.01	229
82	WTC friend	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.30	<0.01	-0.30	<0.01	229
83	WTC friend	PRCA total	-0.44	<0.01	-0.44	<0.01	229
84	WTC friend	SPCC stranger	0.35	<0.01	0.35	<0.01	226
85	WTC friend	SPCC Acquaintance	0.49	<0.01	0.49	<0.01	226
86	WTC friend	SPCC friend	0.78	<0.01	0.78	<0.01	226
87	WTC friend	SPCC public	0.61	<0.01	0.61	<0.01	226
88	WTC friend	SPCC meeting	0.55	<0.01	0.55	<0.01	226
89	WTC friend	SPCC group	0.52	<0.01	0.52	<0.01	226
90	WTC friend	SPCC dyad	0.40	<0.01	0.40	<0.01	226
91	WTC friend	SPCC total	0.61	<0.01	0.61	<0.01	226
92	WTC total	PRCA Group discussion	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	229
93	WTC total	PRCA Meetings	-0.59	<0.01	-0.59	<0.01	229
94	WTC total	PRCA Interpersonal	-0.50	<0.01	-0.50	<0.01	229
95	WTC total	PRCA Public Speaking	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	229
96	WTC total	PRCA total	-0.64	<0.01	-0.64	<0.01	229
97	WTC total	SPCC stranger	0.69	<0.01	0.69	<0.01	226
98	WTC total	SPCC Acquaintance	0.64	<0.01	0.64	<0.01	226
99	WTC total	SPCC friend	0.56	<0.01	0.56	<0.01	226
100	WTC total	SPCC public	0.70	<0.01	0.70	<0.01	226
101	WTC total	SPCC meeting	0.73	<0.01	0.73	<0.01	226
102	WTC total	SPCC group	0.65	<0.01	0.65	<0.01	226

103	WTC total	SPCC dyad	0.59	<0.01	0.59	<0.01	226
104	WTC total	SPCC total	0.78	<0.01	0.78	<0.01	226
105	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC stranger	-0.50	<0.01	-0.50	<0.01	226
106	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC Acquaintance	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	226
107	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC friend	-0.50	<0.01	-0.50	<0.01	226
108	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC public	-0.54	<0.01	-0.54	<0.01	226
109	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC meeting	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	226
110	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC group	-0.51	<0.01	-0.51	<0.01	226
111	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC dyad	-0.47	<0.01	-0.47	<0.01	226
112	PRCA Group discussion	SPCC total	-0.60	<0.01	-0.60	<0.01	226
113	PRCA Meetings	SPCC stranger	-0.53	<0.01	-0.53	<0.01	226
114	PRCA Meetings	SPCC Acquaintance	-0.48	<0.01	-0.48	<0.01	226
115	PRCA Meetings	SPCC friend	-0.42	<0.01	-0.42	<0.01	226
116	PRCA Meetings	SPCC public	-0.50	<0.01	-0.50	<0.01	226
117	PRCA Meetings	SPCC meeting	-0.62	<0.01	-0.62	<0.01	226
118	PRCA Meetings	SPCC group	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	226
119	PRCA Meetings	SPCC dyad	-0.40	<0.01	-0.40	<0.01	226
120	PRCA Meetings	SPCC total	-0.59	<0.01	-0.59	<0.01	226
121	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC stranger	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	226
122	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC Acquaintance	-0.46	<0.01	-0.46	<0.01	226
123	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC friend	-0.39	<0.01	-0.39	<0.01	226
124	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC public	-0.41	<0.01	-0.41	<0.01	226
125	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC meeting	-0.53	<0.01	-0.53	<0.01	226
126	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC group	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	226
127	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC dyad	-0.47	<0.01	-0.47	<0.01	226
128	PRCA Interpersonal	SPCC total	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	226
129	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC stranger	-0.44	<0.01	-0.44	<0.01	226
130	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC Acquaintance	-0.44	<0.01	-0.44	<0.01	226
131	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC friend	-0.30	<0.01	-0.30	<0.01	226
132	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC public	-0.45	<0.01	-0.45	<0.01	226
133	PRCA Public	SPCC meeting	-0.51	<0.01	-0.51	<0.01	226

	Speaking						
134	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC group	-0.42	<0.01	-0.42	<0.01	226
135	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC dyad	-0.31	<0.01	-0.31	<0.01	226
136	PRCA Public Speaking	SPCC total	-0.49	<0.01	-0.49	<0.01	226
137	PRCA total	SPCC stranger	-0.58	<0.01	-0.58	<0.01	226
138	PRCA total	SPCC Acquaintance	-0.55	<0.01	-0.55	<0.01	226
139	PRCA total	SPCC friend	-0.47	<0.01	-0.47	<0.01	226
140	PRCA total	SPCC public	-0.56	<0.01	-0.56	<0.01	226
141	PRCA total	SPCC meeting	-0.65	<0.01	-0.65	<0.01	226
142	PRCA total	SPCC group	-0.56	<0.01	-0.56	<0.01	226
143	PRCA total	SPCC dyad	-0.48	<0.01	-0.48	<0.01	226
144	PRCA total	SPCC total	-0.65	<0.01	-0.65	<0.01	226

ADDENDUM 5.1: EXAMPLE OF THE CODING OF EVALUATION REPORTS



ADDENDUM 5.2: EXAMPLES OF CLARITY AND IMMEDIACY COMMENTS

Clarity comments: positive[62] and negative 2009

Student teacher 1	Student teacher 2	Student teacher 3	Student teacher 4	Student teacher 5	Student teacher 6
well planned	Story will told	very detailed planning	"weekend discussion" was a good way of leading into discussion of religions	lovely idea to use children for the intro- discussion around comparing them worked well..	thoughtfully planned the lesson
using cards…cards are a bit small	your initial discussion… seem about the children and they didn't respond much	think about planning for time	sensible planning	good tone and language	well prepared resources
many pictures… enhanced your storytelling without disturbing the flow	be flexible enough to respond fully to their answers or comments	missed the real-life link	be sure of your primary focus, so that lesson is more coherent in content and flow	concrete demonstration and ongoing verbalisation worked well	detailed planning
using cards…. cards a bit small	be careful of using vocabulary that may be unfamiliar	the learners at your sides struggled to see the shapes	more concrete visual aids were needed	good structure.. Songs added value here	lovely way to introduce more and less.. Some grasped the concept immediately
you cut your discussion short	ch this age think concretely… to hold up fingers or show picture	use the conclusion as the introduction	when you talk about a "mall"… ask … if they know the name of the shopping centre they go to	thinking a lot about what you should do and what they should learn	using the abacus to reinforce understanding…excellent idea
did not manage to ask all the questions you planned	what about all the q you planned to ask? Needed to ask them before you told them about follow-up activity		important for children to learn orientation… you would extend their learning	Could have gone on a bit	communicated cleary…pace was appropriate
work on your understanding of the focus and assessment aspects of your planning	the way you told the story and explained… would be been better suited to Gr 1 and 2, or children with a strong religious background		became restless… didn't relate to idea of mosque/church/Sunday school… perhaps visual aids would have been helpful	sorting activity - 5 things… "what number came up the most" = hard concept… good that you rephrased this.. What else could you say that is simple, clear and concrete	jar activity was appropriate for estimation, however try not to use the word 'test'
rethink intro.. Make more of the real-life link	provide more detail on lesson plan		it is important to give your lesson focus and coherence		concluding song- well lead
link… and take them from the known to the unknown	think about time planning - shorter sections		your discussion jumped from topic to topic… lesson was rather 'bitty'	at some points involve yourself but creating a group for yourself and include yourself… comparing your items…	appropriate intro… ch enjoyed singing… story - fun way.. Introduce plus and minus… ch related to the characters
think about time planning - plan for shorter sections of time	lesson was a bit short		sensible intro- links… to their environment.. Make more of this.	what material… or what is it made of… children struggled a bit at this stage….	effective use of puppets
good use of interesting resources	think about more structure		write q on plan	smallest to tallest.. Shouldn't it be shortest to tallest and smallest to biggest?	I like all the real-life links you've integrated into lesson

[62] Positive comments are shaded in grey.

Student teacher 1	Student teacher 2	Student teacher 3	Student teacher 4	Student teacher 5	Student teacher 6
plan more open-ended questions to guide their learning	independent work requires very precise instructions		think about time planning	also discuss how you are measuring… from floor up… form imaginary line…	remember time frames.. Gr R ch… concentrate for about 20min
think more about expected learning	have they work with the medium before? Should you not teach them 'how to'?		lesson was a little short	this aspect of your activity was not very clear	however, the concepts of plus and minus are two different operations…. Suggestion… consolidate one operation before introducing the other
think about varying the pace of your lesson	I would like to hear them more		read you focus… vocabulary	do you think they all had enough opportunity to verbalise?	ch… were not sure of minus… this needs to worked in 3D before in 2D will be understood
	plan q to extend learning			keep all… involved and be aware of .. Individual progress and attention	it may have been appropriate to do the activity with the ch first and then use the cards
				you seem to rush a bit	time-planning… plan for shorter sections
				remember to explain where they will be going next after this activity	planned many q… planning more open-ended q to lead them to deeper learning
				very detailed planning	think more about the management of the learning process… why not introduce songs earlier… would help te keep them focussed
				many questions.. Think about planning more open-ended q … to lead them to deeper learning	was fun… aim for more depth in the learning
				time planning.. Plan for shorter sections	think more about the literacy aspect

ADDENDUM 5.2 (Continue)
Immediacy comments: positive[63] and negative 2009

Student 1	Student 2	Student 3	Student 4	Student 5	Student 6
good expressive telling of story	lovely interactive teaching style	you have a sweet calm manner as you work with children at their activity tables	friendly, delightful manner	lovely, lively teaching style	effective voice - different pitches
remained calm	you use so many names	told a lovely story	they relate well to her	more volume though	calm teaching style
calm, friendly teaching style	It would have been good to see you on the floor with them (although I know you won't find this easy)	creative interpretation	quiet empathetic manner settled them		interact with them really well
do be careful, though, not to lose eye-contact with the children	at some point involve yourself	seems to be quite a formal classroom	very positive attitude		remember please and thank you throughout
very quiet voice initially, but once you started your story you relaxed. Then you were able to use your voice expressively	you give positive feedback at times	think about using a little more volume	very lively style -		
very quiet, but with confidence and experience you will become more outgoing and animated	respond to the learners' comments		Friendly'		
think about using their names more	Keep chatting to them		work on more volume, but in a calm manner		
	I'm sure you will relax, slow down and enjoy yourself when you are not being watched		think more about connecting with the learners		
			sit down with them and use their names		

[63] Positive comments are shaded in grey.

ADDENDUM 5.3

FOUNDATION PHASE LESSON PLAN (2009 – 2011)

STUDENT NAME: _____

SCHOOL	**DATE:**	**GRADE**		**TUTOR TEACHER**				
THEME	**GROUPING TYPE**			**No of Learners**				
LEARNING PROGRAMME	**LITERACY**	**NUMERACY**	**LIFE SKILLS**					
LEARNING AREA	**LANGUAGE**	**MATHEMATICS**	**SS**	**TECH**	**NS**	**EMS**	**A & C**	**LO**

Critical Outcomes	**Learning Outcomes**
	Write out the appropriate assessment standard(s) here:
	The focus for *this* learning activity is: (Own words – bulleted)
Assessment	
What / How	**Lesson Context**
	Prior learning (looking back at):
Resources	Future learning (looking forward to):

Introduction	Time	Conclusion	Time

Exposition	Time	Reflection
		What did and did not work? How could this lesson be improved? • Content • Management • Pace • Questioning Techniques Learning (refer to focus •

2012 FOUNDATION PHASE LESSON PLAN (CAPS)

STUDENT NAME: _____

SCHOOL:	**GRADE:**	**DATE:**
GROUPING TYPE:	**NO. OF LEARNERS:**	**TUTOR TEACHER:**
LANGUAGE	**MATHEMATICS**	**LIFE SKILLS**
CONCEPT (tick relevant concept): Listening & speaking Phonics Handwriting Reading Writing	**CONTENT AREA (tick relevant area):** Numbers, Operations and Relationships Patterns, Functions & Algebra Space and Shape (Geometry) Measurement Data Handling	**STUDY AREA (tick relevant area):** Beginning knowledge Physical & social wellbeing Creative arts (Performing arts/Visual arts) Physical Education
CONTENT:	**TOPIC:**	**TOPIC:**

OBJECTIVES (knowledge & skills)		**Lesson Context**
By the end of this lesson the learners should know/understand/do the following (own words – bulleted)		Prior learning (background knowledge):
		Future learning (progression):
Formative Assessment during the lesson		
What	How	**Resources** (RESEARCH – ATTACH ALL EVIDENCE OF RESEARCH INTO THE TOPIC)

Introduction	**Time**	**Exposition continued**	**Time**
Exposition (including all questions)	**Time**		

		Conclusion (consolidation of learning	**Time**
		)	

REFLECTION

The *purpose of reflection is to learn through exploring our teaching experience in order to gain new insights or changed perceptions of our practice and of ourselves in the role of teacher*. In this lesson: what did and did not work? Why/ why not? How can it be improved to create more and better learning opportunities?

Consider the following aspects of your lesson:

- Content (including research)
- Management (of resources/ behaviour/ organization/ materials, etc)
- Pace
- Questioning Techniques (refer to lower and higher order questions)
- Learning (refer to focus)
- Other

ADDENDUM 5.4: EXAMPLES OF IMMEDIACY COMMENTS (2009 & 2012)

Immediacy behaviours of student teachers: Positive comments

Immediacy positive comments: 2009	Themes identified
• very positive attitude • very lively style • approached the lesson with enthusiasm and confidence • lovely, lively teaching style • stunning use of puppets used songs, fun • lovely lively teaching style • very good energy • lovely lively teaching style • fun-filled experience	**Energy/ enthusiasm/ fun/ lively**
• quiet empathetic manner settled them • calm, friendly teaching style • remained calm • you have a sweet calm manner as you work with children at their activity tables • calm teaching style • lovely calm teaching style • calm teaching style • calm teaching style	**Calm Style**
• good expressive telling of story • told a lovely story • creative interpretation • effective voice - different pitches • very effective use of puppet to tell the story • lovely facial expression • children enjoyed the different ways in which you used you voice • lovely posters, song • lovely song	**Creativity/ Expression**
• you moved around the group, gently encouraging the children • engaging teaching style • interact with them really well • lovely interactive teaching style • communication was also positive	**Engaging/ Rapport**
• friendly, delightful manner • friendly teaching style • friendly, engaging teaching style • Friendly	**Friendly**
• confidently directed the activity • approached the lesson with enthusiasm and confidence • vivacious, gregarious, self-confident • totally in control • Confident	**Confidence**

Immediacy positive comments: 2012	Themes identified
• you interact with the young child with comfort and ease • The children clearly connect with you • pleased to see that you walked around and assisted where necessary • you seem to relate well to the girls • you relate well to the learners • they connect with you • generally there is a warmth and a clear interest in their learning • you have good rapport with the class the respect is mutual • good rapport with the learners has been fostered • you have a wonderful rapport with them learners and they relate very well to you • you interact well with the learners • were very aware of all the learners • a good rapport with the learners • made contact with as many… kept eye-contact with them • really nice rapport with the children, they responded positively to you • made contact with them while they were working • you have a lovely manner with children • I like you style and learners respond well	**Engaging/ rapport**
• now and again I see a bit of humour showing • A lively and purposeful approach • animated, lively approach • game - it was fun • lovely enthusiastic approach made for an enjoyable experience • lovely bubbly nature which is contagious	**Energy/Enthusiasm/ Fun/Lively**
• lovely calm teaching style • you remained calm and collected after all the chaos	**Calm Style**

• beginning to use their names • you use so many names • you use their names	**Use of Names**
of the morning (school started late due to protest action) • lovely calm lesson where the learners were constantly involved in the learning • lovely calm friendly teaching style	**Calm Style**
• voice use improved - used greater variety • well-modulated voice	**Creativity/ Expression**
• you smile often • lovely calm friendly teaching style • lovely friendly teaching style	**Friendly**
• a lovely quiet confidence • confident and successful teacher • you've developed into a lovely confident teacher	**Confidence**
• There is also encouragement • you consistently show sensitivity and you praise learners often • I like your continual positive comments • I like the way that you have encouraged the learners • Good to praise them for their efforts	**Praise and Encouragement**
• developed into a lovely teacher • positive style • you seem comfortable in the classroom situation • an easy manner	**Positive Style/ Easy/Comfortable**

Immediacy behaviours of student teachers: Negative comments

Immediacy negative comments: 2009	Themes identified
• sit down with them • think more about your presence in the room • at some point involve yourself • don't refer to yourself in the third person • think about being more immediate in the room • you seem to be a bit distant, observing rather than participating • relax and don't be hesitant to become involved • think more about connecting with the learners • It would have been good to see you on the floor with them (although I know you won't find this easy) • think more about connecting with the learners	**Connection/ involvement**
• very lively style - work on more volume, but in a calm manner • more volume though • as you relaxed your tone became more natural • use your voice to connect with them - more volume • very quiet voice initially • high pitched voice • very quiet, but with confidence and experience you will become more outgoing and animated • think about using a little more volume • think about using your voice more	**Voice/ Expression**
• remember to be flexible enough to respond fully to their answers or comments • hopefully you'll learn to relax and allow communication to be two-sided • the little boy…	**Responding**

Immediacy negative comments: 2012	Themes identified
• think about including them in the lesson • include the back rows as well • instead of standing all the time, sit and get down to their level • they need to be more aware of your presence • move around and make your presence felt more • showed very little interaction with the learners at the tables • your body language must also do the talking… children pick up our aura very quickly • You have a calm style, but you come across as unfocussed • you seemed removed from them when you handed out the fruit - you didn't hear the perfect moment for extended learning • you stay in front of the class. Think about moving around more	**Connection/ involvement**
• voice is too quiet • speak a little softer • use full volume only for crowd control teaching is not crowd control • need to increase the tone of your voice (volume) • remember to slow down at times - not all learners can maintain such a pace	**Voice/ Expression**
• Why did you walk around so often? This adds to the chaos • try to relax • I'm just concerned that you seem insecure. Take charge. • Gradually you will also relax into it so that you can really enjoy your teaching • Relax now, you've developed a calm teaching style	**Nervous**

was very enthusiastic, but you tended to dismiss him because the movies interpretation was different • you give positive feedback at times • respond to the learners' comments • Keep chatting to them	**Responding**
• remember to smile • remember to smile • try to look cheerful and encouraging • remember to smile • remember to smile	**Smile**
• use their names • use their names more • think about using their names more • use their names more	**Use of Names**
• you need to be more animated and enthusiastic.. To make learning experience exciting • (during songs) it would have been nice to see you looking enthusiastic too • you counted with them but made no comment - an enthusiastic "well done" - make it more exciting	**Enthusiasm**
• remember please and thank you throughout • you need to say please and thank you • ask them to move - never drag a child to where you want them	**Courtesy**
• initially a bit still and formal, • seems to be quite a formal classroom	**Formal**
• started off a bit still in your manner, probably feeling nervous • I'm sure you will relax, slow down and enjoy yourself when you are not being watched	**Nervous**
• you have to calm down a little	**Pace**
• you are nervous and upset about the chaos in the area (riots) but remember to smile	**Smile**
• try and instil more life into your lesson, it was dreary	**Enthusiasm**
• I hope that you are able to be assertive and firm when necessary • you are not being assertive enough • try to be more assertive • I wanted to see you more in control • I'm just concerned that you seem insecure. Take charge. • don't hesitate to assert yourself as the teacher	**Assertive**